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ABSTRACT

This publication is a report of the findings of four task forces that addressed a number of the currently unanswered questions in undergraduate social work education. The project was conceived out of the conviction that if in the future students are to enter practice immediately following receipt of the baccalaureate degree, the curriculum for such students should explicitly prepare them for practice in addition to providing a general education consistent with emerging patterns of liberal arts education. Since professional curricula should logically start with a clear description of the role performance expected of the practitioner, the first phase of the project consisted of an attempt to find answers to the questions (1) What can a baccalaureate worker do well in a social work agency? and (2) What are the typical assignments given to baccalaureate workers? (Author/HS)

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Undergraduate Social Work Education for Practice

. . . A REPORT

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UNDERGRADUATE SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION FOR PRACTICE:

A REPORT ON CURRICULUM CONTENT AND ISSUES

Lester J. Glick, Editor

Report of The
Curriculum Building Project
Conducted By
Syracuse University School of Social Work
Under Contract With
The U.S. Veterans Administration

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Letter of Transmittal

FEBRUARY 24, 1971

MR. DELWIN M. ANDERSON, *Director,*
Social Work Services
Veterans Administration Central Office,
810 Vermont Avenue NW.,
Washington, D.C. 20420

DEAR MR. ANDERSON: Syracuse University School of Social Work herewith transmits to the Veterans Administration the manuscript entitled "Undergraduate Social Work Education for Practice: A Report." This volume and a companion volume entitled "Manpower Research on Utilization of Baccalaureate Social Workers: Implications for Education" constitute the final reports of the project Manpower Research and Curriculum Building in Social Work. This program was conducted by the University supported by Contract EMI 69-006-01 under an exchange of medical information agreement with the Department of Medicine and Surgery.

It is our belief that these documents will contribute greatly to improve social work participation in the delivery of health services by focusing on the education required for practice at the baccalaureate level. The timeliness of this material should be especially noted. During the course of this program, the National Association of Social Workers took action to admit into full membership graduates of recognized undergraduate programs. This has further "professionalized" this level of practitioner and spotlighted the need to more specifically explicate the curriculum necessary to prepare these personnel for direct practice. In addition, the Council on Social Work Education has strengthened standards for undergraduate programs to insure more professional content at this level, and decided at their annual meeting in January, 1971, to permit schools which admit students with a baccalaureate degree to shorten their graduate education by as much as one year. The material developed by this project should enable undergraduate departments to more effectively respond to these changes.

In addition to the formal benefits as exhibited by this document, the impact of 15 eminent educators and 12 manpower specialists assembled together has resulted in a new look at both the education and utilization of the BA worker in the future.

Finally, we have noted during the past 2 years that many agencies including the Veterans Administration have moved to utilize BA level practitioners on a larger scale. Improved education for these individuals can only mean better delivery of service to clients.

Sincerely,

Lester J. Glick,

Thomas L. Briggs,

Project Co-Directors.

LJG:TLB/ee
Enclosure

Foreword

This publication is a report of the findings of four task forces that addressed a number of the currently unanswered questions in undergraduate social work education. The project arose in a climate of change affecting a broad range of social institutions, among them social work education and the social service delivery system. The forces of change within social work are many, including an assumed manpower shortage, involvement of clients in service delivery, and the impact of students, social work practitioners, and educators on both the educational process and the modes of service provision.

In addition to these factors, social workers are recognizing that baccalaureate graduates will continue to comprise a large percentage of the total social service manpower for an indefinite period of time. The difference in the future will be that the baccalaureate social worker will more frequently have a degree with a social work major rather than a nondifferentiated degree as in the past. This is supported by the fact that hundreds of colleges and universities in the United States and Canada are now including social work content in their curricula.

This project "Undergraduate Social Work Education for Practice" was conceived out of the conviction that if in the future students are to enter practice immediately following receipt of the baccalaureate degree, the curriculum for such students should explicitly prepare them for practice in addition to providing a general education consistent with emerging patterns of liberal arts education.

Since professional curricula should logically start with a clear description of the role performance expected of the practitioner, the first phase of the project consisted of an attempt to find answers to the questions (1) What can a baccalaureate worker do well in a social work agency? and (2) What are the typical assignments given to baccalaureate workers? To gather data on these questions, seven separate research demonstration project reports were presented to social work educators, who then attempted to answer the question "Education for what?"

This volume contains the reports of those 15 educators, who worked together in four task forces, formulating their ideas on baccalaureate social work education.

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY,
Syracuse, N.Y.,
December 1970.

LESTER J. GLICK,
THOMAS L. BRIGGS,
Project Co-Directors.

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Acknowledgements

The effort reported here was made possible by the participation of a large number of persons representing a variety of institutions. In particular, acknowledgement must be made to the Veterans Administration both for the funding provided and for the services of Claire R. Lustman, who was the VA's staff liaison to the project. The 15 writers of the task force reports provided the major contribution in time and effort to the final project.

Initial impetus for the project was provided by researchers on manpower utilization through their support of the hypothesis that the graduate of a baccalaureate program in social work can indeed provide professional services in a wide variety of social agency structures.

Walter M. Beattie, Jr., Dean, Syracuse University School of Social Work, created the administrative context for the project and was available for consultation during each phase of the process. The faculty and staff of the Syracuse University School of Social Work provided the setting, stimulation, and support.

The Advisory Committee performed a vital role in assisting initially to conceptualize the design of the project, in enabling the task force members to achieve their objectives, and ultimately in serving as the Editorial Committee. This committee consisted of the following persons:

Cordelia Cox, chairman
Claire R. Lustman, VA representative and member, Task Force IV
Donald Feldstein, CSWE representative and member, Task Force IV
Kay L. Dea, chairman, Task Force I
Margaret B. Matson, chairman, Task Force III
Mereb E. Mossman, chairman, Task Force IV
Fred Wight, chairman, Task Force V
Ernest Witte, chairman, Task Force II

Cordelia Cox prepared the paper "Characteristics of Undergraduate Programs in Social Work Education" found in Part 1 of this volume as the background for the first workshop session. The impressions for the paper were gleaned from the applications for 707 grant applications.

The task forces and their membership were as follows:

Task Force I, Educational Processes:
- Kay L. Dea, Associate Professor, Graduate School of Social Work, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah
- Marguerite V. Pohek, Curriculum Consultant, Council on Social Work Education, New York, N.Y.

Task Force II, Social Welfare Content:
- Herbert Bisno, Director, School of Community Service and Public Affairs, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oreg.
- John M. Romanyshyn, Professor of Social Welfare, University of Maine, Portland, Maine

Zelda Samoff, Director, Undergraduate Department of Social Welfare, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.

Ernest Witte, Dean, College of Social Professions, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky.

Task Force III, Extra-Classroom Learning:

Gerald M. Gross, Director of Counseling, Undergraduate Division, Syracuse University School of Social Work, Syracure, N.Y.

Margaret B. Matson, Director, Social Welfare Major, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pa.

Thomas H. Walz, Director, Living-Learning Center, University College, Minneapolis, Minn.

Task Force IV, Implications for the Continuum:

Donald Feldstein, Director, Center for Social Work and Applied Social Research, Fairleigh Dickinson University, Teaneck, N.J.

Claire R. Lustman, Chief, Staff Development and Education Division, Veterans Administration, Washington, D.C.

Benjamin H. Lyndon, Chairman, Provosts' Advisory Committee on Social Welfare Education, State University of New York, Brockport, N.Y.

Mereb E. Mossman, Vice-Chancellor for Academic Affairs, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N.C.

Joseph L. Vigilante, Dean, Graduate School of Social Work, Adelphi University, Garden City, N.Y.

A fifth task force, with Fred Wight as chairman, was formed to discuss and prepare a report on the manpower implications for the utilization of the BSW graduate. Members of this task force were Mary Baker, Robert Barker, William Boags, Dorothy Bird Daly, Margaret Daniel, Margaret Hoffman, Virginia Karl, and Thomas P. Melican, and their reports may be found in a companion volume entitled "Manpower Research on Utilization of Baccalaureate Social Workers: Implications for Education."

The following research demonstration project reports on manpower utilization were presented at a meeting held in Syracuse, N.Y. on October 10, 1969:

The Midway Project on the Utilization of Public Welfare Personnel, by Claire Anderson and Thomas Carlsen.

The Catholic Social Services of Wayne County Study on Staff Utilization in the Foster Family Care Division, by Thomas P. Melican.

The National Association of Social Workers Study on Utilization of Personnel in Mental Hospitals, by Thomas L. Briggs and Michael Herrera.

The Family Service Association of America's Study on Use of Social Work Assistants in Services to the Aged, by Lenore Rivesman.

The Veterans Administration's Study on the Use of Social Work Associates, by Virginia Karl.

The Syracuse University Research Project on the Complexity-Responsibility Scale, by Donald E. Johnson and Ellen P. Lebowitz.

The following persons were invited as special participant-observers and reactors to the first draft of task force reports during Workshop II held in New York City February 22–24, 1970:

Walter M. Beattie, Jr., Dean, Syracuse University School of Social Work
Marilyn Gore, Council on Social Work Education
Demetria McJulian, Southern University
Sherman Merle, Catholic University
Eileen Raab, student, Syracuse University
Pamela Sprong, student, Syracuse University
Kristen Wenzel, Council on Social Work Education
Connie Wilson, University of Kentucky

Dr. Augustin Root served as the educational consultant to the project and provided many useful ideas at each phase of the curriculum-building process.

James R. Dumpson, Dean, School of Social Service, Fordham University, and vice-president of the Council on Social Work Education, contributed significantly to the project by his address "Social Work Education at the Crossroads." This paper is appendix C.

Pat Lynch deserves special credit for her technical assistance in preparing the draft for final publication.

Marie Dungan was deeply involved in each phase of the project, faithfully typing many manuscripts and diligently keeping the flow of materials and people on target.

LESTER J. GLICK.
THOMAS L. BRIGGS.

Glossary of Terms

This glossary attempts to define the terms used in the project rather than indicating how they have been used by the social work profession in the past. It draws heavily on the glossary found in *PACES,* Vol. 2, No. 12, Provost's Advisory Committee on Education for Social Welfare, Albany, N.Y.

Ancillary services. Subordinate, auxiliary. Physicians use the term in both senses, meaning those services that are ordered by them (subordinate) or those that exist to facilitate their work (auxiliary). Social workers and others usually use the term to refer to services auxiliary or supportive to their own.

Baccalaureate social worker (BSW). A social worker who holds a BA, BS, or AB degree. A *differentiated BSW* is one who has graduated from a social work or social welfare sequence as specified by the standards for constituent membership established by the Council on Social Work Education. The *non-differentiated BSW* is one whose undergraduate education was in a field other than social work or social welfare.

Case aide. A person who provides supportive help to a professional person on behalf of a client or patient. This term is usually preceded by an adjective such as "social welfare," "psychiatric social work," or "medical social work." (See *Social work aide.*)

Cognitive. Intellectual as distinguished from affective and skill processes.

Extra-classroom learning. Educational processes that take place in settings other than the formalized classroom. These may include work as a volunteer, class-related activities or assignments, cross-cultural learning, or the traditional field instruction. (See *Field instruction.*)

Field instruction. That aspect of a student's professional education that is directed by a professional social worker, including social work philosophy, principles, and practice. This term supersedes the older term fieldwork indicating an educational experience, *not* an apprenticeship or work experience. The terms *field instruction* and *field practicum* are generally used synonymously. *Extra-classroom learning* includes a larger variety of activities than the concept of field instruction. (See *Extra-classroom learning.*)

Field observation. A student's social welfare experience, usually undergraduate, in which as part of his course work he is placed in a social institution to view the work being done by watching and listening rather than participating personally in a service.

Fieldwork. Used synonymously with *field instruction* and *field practicum.*

Helping professions. Those professions that assist persons with a spectrum of problems through direct personal contact.

Human services. Those occupations whose primary purpose is the enhancement of human and societal functioning.

MSW. A social worker who holds a master's degree in social work, even though the degree may be represented by initials other than MSW.

Nonprofessional. Social work personnel who by training have not completed a professional social work sequence either at the baccalaureate or higher levels. The terms *paraprofessional, semiprofessional, subprofessional, assistant, associate,* and *aide* are generally seen as roles under this classification. (See *Paraprofessional, Semiprofessional,* and *Subprofessional* for an elaboration of these concepts.) These descriptions may all introduce a conflict in terms in that they suggest that becoming a professional involves a progression of explicit steps. The concept of being professional usually connotes that a person has completely met the requirements for becoming professional.

Paraprofessional. Indicates "beside or alongside" and has been used frequently to describe personnel working in positions designated as "New Careers." *Para* also indicates "training of a kind" such as in-service training.

Professional. Used to describe all levels of social workers who are eligible for full membership in the National Association of Social Workers as specified in the 1969 membership referendum.

Social work aide. A person who provides supportive help to a professional person even though he may have limited or no specialized education to equip him to perform these roles.

Social work associate. Usually a nonprofessional who assumes part of the service responsibility of a professional as a "partner."

Social service. A generic term used in the context of social welfare to indicate implementation of all of the forces of society in an effort to cure its social ills.

Social welfare. The social institution within which society has created a variety of methods and professions concerned with all aspects of the welfare of its citizens. The settings include those in which the primary function is social service as well as host settings such as health, education, and law.

Social worker. Both differentiated BSW and worker with a graduate degree.

Subprofessional. A social worker who is not a candidate to become a professional social worker as determined by the standards established by the National Association of Social Workers.

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Part One

An Overview

INTRODUCTION

Lester J. Glick

This book is a report of the work of fifteen prominent undergraduate social work educators organized in four task forces, who met together in an effort to provide greater specificity for undergraduate social work education. The project arose out of a variety of circumstances, among which was the decision of the Syracuse University School of Social Work to launch an undergraduate social work sequence. In recognition of the gap between the supply of and demand for social workers, the school began to gear its resources for education at various levels.

Although a solution of the social welfare manpower shortage will require a variety of approaches, the one that has been tried most frequently in the past is use of the baccalaureate social worker (BSW) in a practice role. Many agencies have used this approach, yet little effort has been directed toward professionalizing the worker through providing him with educational experiences that would permit him to function optimally in this role.

In addition to the manpower shortage, other events gave special impetus to the Syracuse project:

1. The recent referendum of the National Association of Social Workers, which made provision for membership of the BSW in the professional organization.[1]
2. Revision of the guidelines of the Council on Social Work Education to assure greater practice competence in graduates of undergraduate divisions of schools that are constituent members of CSWE.[2]
3. The provision of federal money to finance selected undergraduate divisions initiating new programs or upgrading existing ones.

In the past undergraduate programs typically attempted to achieve a variety of broad goals simultaneously, including preparation for (1) citizenship, (2) practice, (3) graduate social work education, (4) graduate education in other professional areas, and (5) a variety of other purposes. With the prospect of achievement by the BSW of a higher status in the profession, it seemed especially appropriate to the directors of the Syracuse project that prominent undergraduate educators throughout the country have an opportunity to bring together their best thinking on a curriculum model to prepare the BSW for a practice role. Simultaneously, the Veterans Administration had initiated an experimental program using social work assistants in its social service delivery system. Because of VA's interest in curriculum development for these practitioners, it entered into a contract with Syracuse University to underwrite the cost of the curriculum-building project.

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[1] *See* Appendix A for a description of the NASW membership requirements.

[2] *See* Appendix B for CSWE membership criteria as of June 1971.

A variety of processes have been utilized for curriculum development and design by social workers and other professionals in the past. It was the conviction of the project planners that the logical starting place was a clear definition of the practice behavior of which the graduates of a curriculum should be capable. Specifying the expected behavior of the differentiated BSW appeared to be a tremendous task. However, in an effort to gain some information on the question "Education for what?" directors of recent manpower utilization research demonstration projects were recruited to explicate what BSWs, both differentiated and nondifferentiated, "have done well and what they have done frequently" in social work settings.[3] The planning phase of the project was completed with the following activities:

1. Recruitment of an advisory committee representing a wide spectrum of undergraduate educators to serve as consultants in conceptualizing and implementing the project.[4]

2. Recruitment of prominent undergraduate social work educators and a small group of manpower utilization specialists to undertake assignments on curriculum-building for the BSW.

Four task forces were then formed to reflect on specific components of undergraduate social work education and to postulate questions and propositions related to the areas of their study. The papers that appear in this volume are the reports of these task forces. Although this publication is a collection of separate papers, each was prepared within the context of a task force and each task force in turn interacted with every other task force on three separate occasions:

1. The first meeting, held in Syracuse, N.Y., in October 1969, was an effort to achieve the following two objectives:
   a. Presentation of six research-demonstration projects to help answer the question "Baccalaureate education for what?"
   b. Organization of task forces into working groups to define the parameters and focus of each task force assignment.

2. At the second meeting, held in February 1970, each task force presented its initial findings to an assemblage of all the task force members and to a group of special observers chosen to react to these initial presentations.

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[3] The reports of these projects and a task force report on manpower utilization appear in the companion volume.

[4] *See* the Foreword for the names of these persons.

3. The third meeting was an open forum held in April 1970, at which time each task force presented its papers at a conference attended by 130 educators and practitioners.

The papers presented here are products of this process and represent areas of special interest and concern in undergraduate social work education.

In the decade 1960–70 the number of schools interested in initiating new programs in undergraduate social work education has multiplied tremendously. Administrators and faculty called on to implement these programs have had numerous unanswered questions, among which these four stand out by virtue of their repeated occurrence:

1. What does the new educational technology have to offer social work programs?
2. How can the community be used as a laboratory for learning in baccalaureate education?
3. What are the implications of this education for community colleges and for education at the master's and doctoral levels?
4. What should be the specific social work content?

Ultimately each of these questions was converted into a task force assignment as follows:

TASK FORCE I—EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES

Task Force I had its genesis in the belief that social work educators tend to transpose their social work practice modes into the classroom without recognizing, for example, that "group working" a group work class has limitations as well as benefits. The new educational modes—á la Tyler and others—have left their impact on social work education as reflected in various curriculum studies, beginning with that of CSWE in 1959.

The project Advisory Committee and the project staff obtained the services of Kay Dea, part-time undergraduate consultant for CSWE, and Marguerite V. Pohek, for many years curriculum consultant to CSWE, to develop papers that would attempt to ferret out the most salient themes for educational technology. These reports are presented in Part Two.

TASK FORCE II—SOCIAL WELFARE CONTENT

When the goal of undergraduate programs was preparation for citizenship or for graduate school, the social work content in the curriculum was much less important than it is if students were to be prepared for practice roles. Some of the questions that frequently arise in considering appropriate social work content are these:

1. What social welfare content is more relevant for baccalaureate education?
2. What is the total range of factors a school needs to consider in initiating a new curriculum?
3. How can learning objectives be divided into cognitive-affect and skill learning, and might the mode of learning be different for each of these areas?

4. What should be the level of skill taught and what interventive strategies are especially relevant for the BSW?

These questions and others prompted the Advisory Committee to recruit four veteran social work educators to address themselves to these questions. Ernest Witte, a widely recognized and competent scholar who for many years has advocated a continuum of education, chaired this task force, his papers appear in Part V.

TASK FORCE III—EXTRA-CLASSROOM LEARNING

Task Force III was developed with the conviction that the location of educational experiences should have special consideration if the baccalaureate program is to prepare students for practice roles. The total range of these "extra-classroom" learning activities was conceived to include observation and voluntary experiences in the community, class-related community assignments, cross-cultural learning, international education, living-learning centers, and academic advising, in addition to the traditional field practicum. Although each of these was not considered in detail, the task force, under the leadership of Margaret Matson, chose to address itself to topics of student advising, the community as a laboratory, and the field practicum.

TASK FORCE IV—IMPLICATIONS FOR THE CONTINUUM

For some time the only acceptable professional degree in social work was the master's degree. In the last decade a large number of social work schools began granting doctoral degrees for educators, researchers, advanced practitioners, and others. With the most recent trend of introducing social work content at the community college and baccalaureate level, developing the concept of a continuum of education in social work has become a necessity.

Task Force IV therefore agreed to consider the implications for the associate, master's and doctoral levels of introducing baccalaureate social work education.[5] Mereb Mossman chaired the task force.

LIMITATIONS OF THE PROJECT

It is the belief of the task force members, the Advisory Committee, and the codirectors of the project that this is a significant contribution to those who are interested in upgrading undergraduate social work education. This project, however, is not an exhaustive study and is subject to the following limitations:

1. Although a large number of questions were developed and discussed in the process of the study, many were not dealt with in detail and at best reflect tentative thinking.

2. The reports are not institutionally based; they do not necessarily reflect the thinking of the Veterans Administration, the Syracuse University School of Social Work, nor the specific institutions that task force members represent.

3. Members of each task force functioned as separate entities in an

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[5] *Associate* refers to the 2-year associate in arts degree granted by community colleges.

individualistic manner. Even though assignments were made, they had the right to deviate from their assignments and operate independently. Although consensus was attempted in crucial areas, this was not achieved on every issue.

4. The type of presentation of the various task force reports varies from one task force to another. No effort was made to prescribe an exact format for purposes of presentation.

5. The task force participants had diverse backgrounds and experience. Nevertheless there was no effort to assure that they represented the total social work profession, nor does the report attempt to suggest closure on the issues discussed.

6. Focus of the project was on preparation of the baccalaureate worker for entry into social work practice. If the goal were to prepare students for graduate education or for citizenship, the curriculum content might have had a different emphasis.

7. These reports are not to be seen as a prescription for curriculum development for a given school. Instead an attempt was made to lift certain central questions that a school should consider in developing a social work sequence.

8. The task force reports have certain repetitive elements. The editor did not attempt to delete this repetition because the authors felt these elements contributed to the consistency of their respective presentations.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT RESOURCES

In the past the undergraduate social work educator has had very few resources to assist him in the process of curriculum development. Today, however, assistance is available not only in the university community, but also on the State and National level. These resources include:

1. The Council on Social Work Education, 345 East 46th Street, New York, N.Y. 10017. This organization was initially developed as an enabling and accrediting body primarily for graduate schools of social work. Recently it has broadened its scope to provide services to baccalaureate educators and offers consultation to both constituent and nonconstituent members at the baccalaureate and two-year college level. The Council is continuously involved in the development of educational materials at all levels. A listing of publications may be obtained upon request.

2. The Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (WICHE), P.O. Drawer P, Boulder, Colo. 80302. This commission has provided consultant services for undergraduate departments, and more recently is emphasizing the implementation of current models of differential manpower usage in agencies, with special emphasis on undergraduate workers.

3. The Southern Regional Education Board, 130 Sixth Street NW., Atlanta, Ga. 30313. This association of Southern States has provided directly and through individual States part-time consultation and enabling resources to southern schools. The Board has conducted curri-

culum-building workshops and has undertaken a major project of conceptualizing a social welfare manpower utilization model.

In addition to the formalized associations several ad hoc groups hold area meetings for interested schools. There are annual or biannual State meetings held in New York, Michigan, Indiana, Ohio, and a regional meeting in the Northwest. The Council on Social Work Education can provide the names and addresses of persons and/or schools that coordinate these activities.

Every college or university has various resources within the school and community which are essential for the successful administration of any baccalaureate program. A baccalaureate curriculum will draw heavily from course content in sociology, psychology, economics, and political science. Therefore, an advisory group representing these areas is usually an asset. A close relationship with a division of instructional communications may be valuable in the development of teachers and teaching style.

Every baccalaureate program is dependent upon social agency resources in the community for integrating and enhancing the learning process of students. Schools therefore need to have a formalized relationship with various agencies on an advisory level in addition to an ongoing working relationship as students are placed in a field practicum and/or in a voluntary experience.

CHARACTERISTICS OF UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMS IN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

Cordelia Cox

As the social work profession seeks to define and give direction to the development of undergraduate education for social work, it is important to know the kinds of existent programs, and the directions in which they are moving. This knowledge can then serve as a base for planning for the future. Unfortunately there are no studies that afford any considerable amount of hard data for this purpose. However, pending such studies, it is possible to draw some generalizations from less formal sources that may be useful and that can offer perspective on a variety of programs.

One such source is the program descriptions found in several hundred grant applications for projects in undergraduate education for social work that were submitted to the Social and Rehabilitation Service of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare during 1969 and 1970 under Title VII, Section 707, of the Social Security Act. These applications have served as the primary source of information for the observations made in this paper, supplemented by information acquired in visits to a number of educational institutions and through conferences with many social work educators.

The intent of this paper is to identify some of the characteristics of undergraduate programs to serve as background information for study of the materials developed by the Syracuse University curriculum-building workshop. Selection of these characteristics represents the perspective of one person who had access to the information described. No claim is made that they are inclusive. However, within the content of this paper, the characteristics and trends presented do have significance and may help to capture for the reader something of the "feel" for the directions that undergraduate programs are taking and to speak to a few of the issues inherent in this movement.

The last 10 years have seen tremendous growth in the number of undergraduate programs in social work. Hundreds of colleges and universities are offering courses, concentrations or majors, and still more are hoping to do so. The strength of the movement both derives from increased self-respect and confidence on the part of its proponents and at the same time is the source of it. This growth has been stimulated by a complicated set of influences, not the least of which are the need for the graduates of such programs and the potentials of undergraduate social work education.

At some point in the development of an idea or program its momentum becomes great enough to bring it into the mainstream of the life around it. This is happening in undergraduate social work education. It brings with it a growing articulation of desirable educational content and contributes to the increasing recognition of its graduates as responsible and skilled social work practitioners. Yet with so much momentum, a task of sorting out values, ideas, and practices also arises, as does the responsibility for charting an educational program that will meet the needs of the present even as it looks to the future. As this sorting out is being done, it is important to conserve the core of knowledge and values intrinsic to social work while the search continues for greater knowledge and better use of it in education. These developments are seen in emerging patterns of curriculum and field instruction, in changing structural arrangments and community relationships, and in the involvement of consumers in the educational process. They speak to the challenges and issues that lie ahead if undergraduate education for social work is to realize its full potential in preparing students for the social services.

TRENDS IN CURRICULUM

The extent of the knowledge explosion as it affects social work education, the extension and enrichment of opportunities for social work practice, and the unprecedented commitment of college students to social betterment have created readiness for the movement in social work education. A transition is evident from primarily descriptive and observational education to that which applies knowledge and values to problem-solving and to wrestling with the individual and societal issues of the day. It is evident too in student response to the opportunity for this kind of education. Of course, not all undergraduate programs are experiencing so much change, nor do all students have an equal degree of readiness. But there is a sense of movement and of investment that cannot be gainsaid, which is finding its way into curriculum to accomplish changes and adaptations to meet the aspirations of educators and the needs of students.

What are some of these curriculum trends? Even brief review of a few of them should be helpful in assessing program directions and providing a base for planning. Seven areas of curriculum content and some developments in educational methods have been identified for this purpose. Each is found, in various stages of use, in a significant number of undergraduate programs. How they continue to develop is the concern of the social work profession.

1. One of the earlier curriculum developments makes use of a "mediating course" [1] in applying knowledge from the social sciences to

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[1] The term "mediating courses" comes from Herbert Bisno, who discusses them as courses that "mediate between the basic disciplines and practice focused courses." Bisno, Vol. II of the Curriculum Study (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1959).

understanding social welfare programs, policies, and issues. The move from the conventional course in the field of social work to content helps the student comprehend the settings and conditions in which people live. Such courses are challenging students to look at society's attempted solutions to its problems in terms of the complexity of their motivations and effectiveness. Undergraduate education may have progressed further in defining and using this content area than in others, yet it is still not too securely established. Recent textbooks and reference materials are furthering its establishment.

2. A comparatively recent development on the undergraduate level is the introduction of course content usually described as "human growth and the environment" or "man in society" brings together concepts from biology, psychology, sociology ,and anthropology and focuses them on social work. These courses also serve as mediators between these sciences and social work knowledge and practice. The scholarship demands made on the educator who teaches this content are of no mean order. Fortunately graduate education has led the way in the alignment of this content and offers patterns that can be adapted. Also, content found in other departments of educational institutions may be used. It is important that the content is being incorporated into the undergraduate curriculum, but more needs to be known of its scope and orientation.

3. Another observable pattern is the presentation of social work practice as an entity. In contrast to conventional study of casework, group work, and community organization, some educators are trying content that presents professional principles and practice as a whole, and are experiencing some success in this endeavor. Such courses are often titled "social work practice" or "methods of social work intervention." Recent literature and, to some extent, graduate education offer helpful resources, but only a beginning has been made in the integration process.

4. Concurrently, as the teaching of generic rather than discrete practice becomes established, educators are beginning to incorporate into their teaching new approaches to service delivery and study of action-oriented programs often termed "nontraditional social services." When necessary these educators are sometimes creating service programs for teaching purposes. Because social work is subject to rapid change, this is done with the conviction that it is important for the student to experience evolving patterns of practice and to share responsibility for their use.

An important addition to the curriculum now being introduced is content on minority cultures. This movement is encouraged by practicing professionals from minority groups who see it as a means of making social work useful to their people. In some instances the desirable content is available in other schools and departments of an institution. More often social work educators seem to be sharing in its development. At present courses in this area are quite diverse and greater selectivity may be needed. However, the importance of the content in the preparation of all social workers who work with minority groups is obvious.

6. Sensitivity training or something similar under another name, is finding its way into undergraduate social work curricula. Little is known of the extent of its use, the qualifications of its leaders, or the results. That it is enjoying a steady growth is clear. In some institutions students and faculty are enthusiastic about its possibilities. Occasionally a program is started and discontinued. It may well be that sensitivity training will become an established curriculum content area. The need now is to know what is being done and the extent of its usefulness so that interested educators will have some guidance as they consider its adoption.

7. As evidenced by the curricula they develop, not all educators are convinced of the value of political science and economics for potential social workers. In accordance with recommended guidelines, students may be encouraged to study in these areas, but minimal translation of concepts in the basic sciences to essentials in social work thinking and practice takes place. Mediating content in these subject areas is seldom found in the curriculum, thus leaving the full responsibility for mediation to the student. A few programs give special attention to the creation of inter-disciplinary curricula that include economics add political science, and are achieving marked success. Although this pattern is not widespread, it gives considerable promise for the future.

8. Much interest is being manifested in the use of audiovisual equipment and materials, especially in the use of tape and video tape recordings of simulated practice, for study and evaluation of the worker's role. Sometimes records are also made of real-life situations, a practice that may present some hazards in maintaining a professional and confidential relationship with the client. Educational films and tapes from a wide variety of sources are being tried. Telelectures are being used. Another development is the beginning use of computerized and programed learning in selected content areas. No considerable body of information is yet available on what is proving useful in these areas, but perhaps it will soon be available and can be shared with additional educators.

Observation of these trends in curriculum content suggests that real progress in conceptual learning is being made and that more can be anticipated. Its coming is dependent on time and adequate preparation of faculty.

PROGRESS TOWARD FIELD INSTRUCTION

Three terms—"field observation," "field experience," and "field instruction"—record the professional development of the educational component of the practicum in undergraduate education. From a period of "looking at and learning about" social work programs and services, educational philosophy and practice moved to "looking at, learning about, and performing tasks in" social work, and now is moving steadily toward the idea of helping the student develop social work skills and experience the varied roles of the social worker. This progression is enhanced and strengthened by the parallel concept that classroom and field learning are closely interrelated parts of a whole in which what the student learns in one is carried over to the other.

This fluidity of and relatedness in learning calls not only for careful definition of the objectives and content of social work education, but for equal attention to the objectives and content of field instruction as a part of the total learning experience. Change in name from "observation" to "instruction" should denote change in educational objectives and status, with all the ramifications and clarifications that must accompany a developing idea. It calls too for developing competence in the student to enable him to perform in traditional social work roles, participate in its emerging roles, and acquire an armamentarium of knowledge, experience, and values that will enable continued growth in quality of service.

Use of a variety of community experiences at lower- and upper-class levels is enhancing field instruction and learning. This field pattern, at one time limited to observational visits to social agencies, promises to become an important element in the curriculum. Observation of community situations, needs, and programs and experience in a wide variety of community contacts can bring the student out of the isolation of his own way of life, whether in suburb or ghetto, in minority or majority culture, or in rural or urban setting. It can also enlighten and enrich the usefulness of the social sciences and the mediating courses that flow from them. In social work education such community experience should culminate in field instruction in social work. This instruction is beginning to be seen as encompassing the breadth and depth of the social work practitioner's roles as agency representative, team member, diagnostician, change agent, broker, therapist, and raconteur.

Various structural patterns are being tried to realize the full potential of field instruction. These involve block placements, concurrent placements, and work-study arrangements. The required time in the field varies according to the institution's view of its feasibility and value. Consideration is being given to the value of two different placements, perhaps involving practice in traditional service patterns coupled with the use of innovative approaches to service. The most desirable patterns have not yet been determined.

Field instruction may provide an opportunity for practice in programs of system change as well as in direct service to people. In some programs field instruction is offered in small groups, occasionally in interdisciplinary student groups. Sometimes graduate and undergraduate students share field instruction, each student functioning at the level of his capability. Master's degree students under skilled direction are becoming instructors for undergraduates; instruction by consumers of service has become an integral part of some plans. Undergraduates are being assigned to field centers that provide multifaceted learning. Field instructors are increasingly drawn from the faculty of the educational institution or, when agency staff members are used, they are given faculty status.

An important element common to the majority of programs is the practice seminar, but the objectives and content of the seminar are still relatively undefined. Patterns of field instruction are fluid and subject to change; in this they reflect the state of the art. The essence of social work education is to be found in educationally directed field instruction and this demands the attention of the profession.

STRUCTURAL ARRANGEMENTS INFLUENCING DEVELOPMENT

The vitality of undergraduate programs shows itself most clearly in the structural rearrangements that are taking place. Not long ago the typical program was nestled inconspicuously, and sometime apologetically, within a hospitable, or reasonably hospitable, academically acceptable host department. It functioned there without too much question and followed time-honored habits and ways of accomplishing its mission. Much good was, and is, inherent in these programs, but for many the arrangement resulted in stultifying inertia. Often the social work faculty consisted of one person or a half-time person brought in from practice to teach. There were, of course, larger, more identifiable social work programs too, but they were few in number and unrecognized by the profession whatever the caliber of their curriculum.

Looking back, movement seemed to come first when a few schools of social work accepted or shared responsibility for undergraduate programs, thus creating a new structural possibility. Increasingly this pattern is being developed on campuses having both undergraduate and graduate programs. Departments and majors in social welfare or social work are seen as desirable and are becoming well established, both when a school of social work is present and when the undergraduate program functions without such support. Many of these major programs are using an interdisciplinary approach, which requires a core of social work content, extensive content from the social and behavioral sciences, and whatever mediating courses have been instituted. The majority of programs continue to be concentrations within another major. The challenge for these concentrations is to define their relation to their institutions and to professional education. Social work and social progress need them, but a redefinition of role seems essential. There appears to be a definite trend to separate departmental majors and degrees.

One of the most promising of the merging structures is the revised idea of a continuum. This is affecting curriculum-building at every level of social work education. Hopefully building from the base upward, each educational level is seeking to identify the content its students need and can use. A number of schools of social work and the undergraduate programs on their campuses are engaged in this venture, and there is some movement toward beginning the process in the community college.

The consortium idea—whereby responsibility and competence are shared by two or more educational institutions—is taking hold. Structurally there is much that needs to be clarified: where administrative responsibility shall rest, how curriculum responsibilities shall be allocated, how true exchange and interchange can be assured, and arrangements as to salaries, tuition, shared equipment, and interchange of students. The idea is promising—institutions now need to perfect it. The consortium may become a "must," especially in the area of field instruction, as programs grow and draw more on the field for instruction.

Establishment of educationally operated field instruction centers, provision for special recruitment and counseling programs, extra- and intra-curricular arrangements for assisting disadvantaged students, and inter-disciplinary and intercultural learning experiences all require new structures. The response of a number of educational institutions to these opportunities suggests that progress toward them will continue.

COMMUNITY-RELATED EDUCATION

An opportunity just being realized is that of use on the college level of the accumulated wisdom of many kinds of people in fashioning programs of social work education. Folk wisdom and the wisdom of the scholar are not so far apart that they cannot be blended in creative education. Consumers of services, practitioners, indigenous residents, students, faculty from varied disciplines and professions, administrators, officials, and policy-makers have knowledge of and ways of perceiving social services, programs, and policies that can profoundly affect their quality and usefulness. With increasing skill and sophistication social work educators are moving toward involving a variety of these people in the educational process.

Among such developments are the growing numbers of advisory committees, subcommittees, and task forces. Some exist in name only; others are integral parts of the educational program. Through such involvement, faculty from the humanities and the behavioral and social sciences are making possible the marshaling of college and university resources for social work education. The use of social workers—not only administrators and field instructors, although these are essential—in committee and task force work to enrich curriculum, keep it related to the field, and influence how and why the baccalaureate social worker (BSW) is used. Ways are being found to utilize the contributions of citizens and representatives of citizen groups in committee work. Of great significance is the inclusion of clients and students on committees and task forces. Both, as consumers of the educational product, have ideas about it. The challenge for the educator is to develop skill in eliciting the ideas of diverse people, and then to use them.

In many instances school and community are coming closer together. Agency field instructors are being recognized and their contributions encouraged, faculty and students are giving voluntary service to communities, and the facilities of colleges are being used in the interest of communities. Among important developments is the increased use of service consumers in the educational process as teachers, counselors, interpreters of individuals and communities, and sources for discovering and developing resources. Also developing, especially in field instruction and tutorial situations, is the use of students as instructors.

Traditionally social work education has been related to the community through field instruction. This continues as a primary relationship, but there is evidence that for many educational institutions this is no longer the only way.

SPECIAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR DISADVANTAGED GROUPS

Social work has as its concern the welfare of people. Because of its concern, the attention of social work educators is increasingly focused on persons who have potential for becoming social workers, but who are faced with educational and social handicaps that make a college education improbable. Frequently these persons are members of minority groups. Programs are being developed with the objective of enabling such minority group or otherwise disadvantaged students to enter and succeed in social work education. These efforts, which are taking many forms, have built-in strengths of motivating and helping the student and some built-in weaknesses of patronizing and sometimes overdirecting him.

Among the patterns being tried out are special devices for identifying potential students and recruiting them. Social agencies are nominating students for educational consideration; upper classmen with similar backgrounds are encouraging younger students to undertake higher education; inner-city agencies and those in barrios, on reservations, and in rural poverty pockets are advertising and interpreting career opportunities in social work. College representatives and student organizations are seeking out potential recruits.

Such identification and recruitment activities are usually accompanied by supportive educational and social opportunities such as get-acquainted visits to campuses, special summer sessions for campus acculturation, and supportive or remedial education, tutoring, counseling curriculum adjustment, or enrichment of curriculum offerings to meet special needs (and thereby enriching education for all students). In some instances curriculum is being rearranged to attract response from the student, for instance by offering increased social work content in the freshman and sophomore years. In a few instances some courses are available in other languages, so that Indian, Puerto Rican, and Mexican-American students can learn in their own tongues. Night courses and special daytime courses for employed students are in operation, and in at least two instances weekend programs are being initiated for persons who work full time.

The culture of the minority group student is an important element in the use he makes of education. And the culture of the user of services is an important element in social work's usefulness. Social work education has an opportunity to perform the dual role of enabling the educable to be educated and (through opportunities made available to all students) of enabling the disadvantaged or minority group consumer of services to be served by practitioners with informed minds and understanding hearts.

Whatever the programs for disadvantaged students and their values, it has become evident that they must be accompanied by student stipends or other means of student support if they are to be effective. This need is being partially met in a variety of ways, but resources are not nearly adequate for the job to be done. Some educational institutions are going "all out" to attract and assist disadvantaged students, although more than likely their best efforts are not enough. Assistance is coming from voluntary and governmental programs, individuals and groups, employment as student assistants, and work-study plans. Yet all these efforts have barely scratched the surface of opportunity and need.

In spite of difficulties, programs to meet the needs of special groups are meeting with success, except perhaps in the case of American Indians. While there are some Indians in schools of social work, they have arrived there primarily by their own motivation. Little is yet known about how the Indian young adult can be encouraged to enter a college or university in general or to study social work in particular.

The challenge to social work education is clear. It is to make good on the realization of its own principles.

THE FUTURE: CHALLENGES AND ISSUES

Across the country development is the key word. It brings with it creation of bits and pieces of excellent education, restructuring of old patterns, and experimentation with new and vital models. Progress is necessarily uneven and probably should remain so. A straightjacket of conformity does not foster excellence in education. However, once this fundamental fact is recognized recognition is also due the fact that there is a body of knowledge and values that can and should be transmitted to those who wish to practice social work. It is essential that programs of social work education incorporate this content so that students may study it and as graduates make use of it and have a common perception of their roles. Further, employing agencies will thereby know what graduates bring to practice by way of education, and graduate schools can build on undergraduate education as part of a continuum that makes use of the full knowledge, conceptual competence, values, and practice of which its students are capable.

NECESSITY FOR STANDARD-SETTING

To achieve these results agreement is needed on what should constitute the core curriculum in social work education, and standards must be evolved that are of sufficient clarity and strength to give direction and of sufficient flexibility to allow for growth. A structure for evaluation of programs and for maintenance of standards then becomes necessary so that it will be known which programs incorporate the essentials of social work education.

The Council on Social Work Education is exploring possible courses of action, including annual recertification of undergraduate membership requirements. Educational institutions need to become involved in this exploration. A pattern that makes the necessary standardization possible and at the same time preserves flexibility for development of creative education is an immediate challenge to social work education and practice. It should be noted that the cost of an accreditation system may be prohibitive at the present time, so other patterns of standardization must be sought.

It seems worthwhile to speculate on what some of the substantive criteria by which undergraduate programs could be evaluated might be. The factual data used in evaluating educational programs are well known and are essential in achieving quality in education. However, in the development and use of social work knowledge, philosophy, and skill for education less tangible criteria have great importance. Through them perspective can be gained on the capacity of a given program to educate students. Formulated as open-ended questions, some considerations for criteria are as follows:

1. How do faculty members describe their objectives?
2. How do students view their learning experience?
3. In what ways are concepts from the social and behavioral sciences being incorporated into social work content?
4. What grasp does the student have of the philosophy and principles of social work?
5. In what ways are class and field content being articulated with each other?
6. What perspectives and experience in social work does the field placement offer?
7. What social responsibility are students manifesting in campus and community activities, in spoken and written expositions in leadership and advocacy, in utilization of educational opportunities?
8. What policy positions do students take and how do they defend them? What opportunity is given for this?
9. What experiences and learning are students seeking on their own initiative?
10. What is the thrust of faculty counseling to students?

Fortunately or unfortunately, there may be no wholly right or wrong answers to these questions. Nor is it probable that all of them can be answered with reference to a given program. Yet the integration of knowledge, thought, values, ideas, and action that they connote are essential for social work (and any other socially oriented occupation). Insofar as they are assured, social work education is assured. Although they may seem nebulous and nonmeasurable, social work education, by setting its sights toward significant answers, can contribute a special quality to the education of the college students for which it assumes responsibility.

SUPPORT FOR UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMS

Education for social work is expensive. Institutions committed to this area of education must find necessary funds for salaries, student stipends, field center educational media, equipment, travel, and consultation. Often not all of this is available within established budgets of educational institutions. When this is the situation, two possible solutions are likely to be explored.

The traditional solution is "operation on a shoestring," thereby overloading faculty, undereducating students, and producing less-than-competent practitioners. A second solution is to seek outside support, especially government funding. This solution has been achieved with some success by a hundred or more educational institutions. Just how long such support will continue and whether additional programs can achieve support are other questions. Citizen involvement in seeking greater public support is essential if funds are to be forthcoming and to increase. Long-range thinking on how its program will be financed immediately and eventually is necessary for the host institution.

HOW MANY PROGRAMS, AND WHAT KINDS?

As has been noted, the momentum that has developed has brought into being large numbers of programs of varying strength and depth. Some colleges are building social work majors or departments; others are offering a course or two; the majority seem to think in terms of giving at least minimal attention to each of the content areas that have been identified as essential.

In this fast-moving scene a problem arises particularly for the small liberal arts college that finds implementation of a full concentration beyond its resources. It can bow out of the picture, leaving the field of social work education to larger, more prosperous institutions. Or it can find ways to use its resources effectively within the financial limitations imposed on it. One solution now in use, but not always acceptable to the profession, is to offer a course or two as part of a general liberal education and to leave preparation for practice to larger educational units. To do this is to contribute to the general education of all students and to give potential social workers an orientation that will lead to informed career choices. For instance, content on social welfare programs, policies, and issues can enrich the education of any inquiring student and direct the attention of the possible recruits to postbaccalaureate education.

Another solution currently being tried is the consortium plan that has been described, whereby the strengths of several institutions contribute to a curriculum of foundation knowledge and social work content that is recognized on each participating campus. Often the social work curriculum is taught by social work educators jointly provided by the participating schools, while faculty from the various schools teach the foundation knowledge.

A third solution that has potential value has also been mentioned—the alignment of baccalaureate programs with graduate schools of social work. This is a successful and valued pattern on campuses having both schools of liberal arts and schools of social work. It has not been worked out in any serious way between undergraduate and graduate schools on different campuses. Yet this offers real possibilities for curriculum development as well as for the continuum. Perhaps such arrangements may be tried out before too long. Some graduate schools as well as undergraduate departments have expressed interest in the possibility.

A final choice is also worthy of consideration. Some institutions may not wish to pursue any of these courses and may opt to withdraw from the field, deciding that social work education is not for them. A less responsible choice will be made by those who continue in the field but offer inadequate education.

The rapid growth of social work education is producing both excellent and mediocre programs. There should be no encouragement of mediocrity when preparation of students for service to people is concerned. The next years promise to be a period of growth and at the same time a period of "sorting out" and "leveling off." Education and practice have a great investment in the outcome.

The time of decision for undergraduate social work education is with us—decisions as to what responsibilities shall be carried by various educational institutions. Liberalizing education that utilizes the humanities, the behavioral and social sciences, and soical work content are essential for the task to be done. Education for social work wherever it is offered should move toward integration into the total curriculum of its parent college and the integration of its graduates into the social work profession.

SOCIAL WORK AND OTHER HELPING SERVICES

In many educational institutions programs in rehabilitative "helping services" and corrections exist alongside those in social work. When the purposes of the programs are examined, they appear to have much in common. Rehabilitation serves to assist handicapped individuals in becoming employable. Corrections prepares personnel for probation and parole services and for services to individuals in institutional correctional settings. Social work's purpose is more generic, but can and often does include these two.

Likeness and differences in curriculum reflect the purposes of the programs. All three see field instruction as an integral part of the curriculum. Often they use some of the same agencies. The counseling services of each build on an understanding of man in his social environment. In social work programs especially, there is stress on understanding environment and culture and the possibility for system change. Understandably more material related to rehabilitation per se or corrections per se is found in these respective programs, while social work may provide more time for foundation knowledge and generic content.

It may be that the sources from which curriculum content for each type of program is drawn vary considerably, and that the philosophy of how people are helped differs. Yet viewing them superficially, many similarities appear. This whole area of curriculum needs careful examination. If the core content in these programs, or part of it, is similar, maintenance of discrete programs may be a disservice to all three. Their resources might well be marshaled for their common elements, and specialties developed from a mutually acceptable generic base. Such a development should increase the quality of each program, conserve its resources, and allow for mobility of graduates among the fields as their opportunities and interests permit.

It is not uncommon for programs in these several areas that exist on the same campus to be unknown to each other or, if known, to feel competitive or defensive toward each other. Through cooperative relationships much could be done to make each program more effective. If some coming together is possible, the interests of education and of the consumers of service will have been served. Such movement might well spark a national study in depth of these interrelationships—a study that is greatly needed.

USE OF BACCALAUREATE GRADUATES

Economic conditions are such that many recent baccalaureate graduates from a variety of disciplines are having difficulty finding employment. Upperclassmen are apprehensive about these opportunities. This picture is reflected in the experience of students who are studying social work and are hoping for employment in that field. In a number of states it is well known that social agencies have more baccalaureate applicants than openings. It is less well known that these graduates are undifferentiated as to their majors, interests, or competence, and that only a small percentage have studied social work. Still less well known is the fact that to date most baccalaureate graduates who have had instruction in social work have not taken majors in this field. Indeed, the number of majors graduating each is far smaller than the number of available positions.

However, even so it is unwise to say that all baccalaureates with social work majors will find jobs in social work. It is true that much needs to be done to bring education and practice requirements into relationship with each other so that well-equipped graduates can receive consideration. Current efforts toward developing career lines and identifying the functions and responsibilities of the BSW are important to this endeavor. Merit system requirements and standards for employment in public programs have a primary influence. Furthermore, change in the status of the baccalaureate has come so rapidly that it is not unusual to find administrators of voluntary and public agencies unwilling to recognize graduates of these programs as social workers. A concerted effort must be made to ensure the competence of the BSW and to interpret it to these agencies. Study and definition are needed in the effectiveness of social work education, the roles and functions of BSWs and their use in service delivery.

Educators and agency personnel would do well to join forces in remedying poorly defined situations. As yet use of the BSW is an uncharted field in which the graduate with a social work major may receive no greater consideration for a social work position than does the nondifferentiated graduate. Unless the situation is changed, social work majors may indeed be unemployed, and consumers of service may have less adequate service than would be available to them if staff were employed who have received social work education.

FACULTY COMPETENCE AND CONTINUED GROWTH

Undergraduate education for social work makes heavy demands for scholarship on its faculty. The faculty member who would equip his students for practice must draw on a changing and rapidly increasing body of knowledge in the social sciences and in social work. This must then be applied to the increasingly complicated condition of mankind. Furthermore, the faculty members must have skill in sharing the knowledge and understanding he possesses. His challenge lies in understanding and keeping up with his field, sharing his knowledge, and stimulating his students to think and learn. And to this challenge he finds no simple solution.

For many years undergraduate faculty members have come together occasionally in State and regional groups to share common concerns and to exchange thinking and experience. For the past 10 years institutes and workshops of several days' or several weeks' duration have been held in which the curriculum, or a portion of it, has been "surveyed" and consideration given to how it might best be taught. But this is no longer enough. Reliance on fast-moving surveys of content areas may have passed the peak of its usefulness. Something more and different is needed that will enable faculty to deepen and extend their scholarship and apply it in teaching.

A variety of possibilities for meeting this need suggest themselves. Schools of social work can be encouraged to extend their post-master's programs with specific attention to the scholarship and skill that are required for teaching. For beginning teachers especially, consultation can be arranged with experienced teachers to help them make the transition from practice to teaching and to orient them to the academic requirements of their new roles. For all faculty, sequential periods of study and teaching can be developed around given bodies of knowledge so that increased scholarship and teaching competence can be attained simultaneously. To be most effective such opportunities should extend over considerable periods of time with teaching interspersed with successive periods of intensive study.

Serious programs of study such as those suggested require the leadership of a school of social work or an educational association that assumes responsibility for planning and implementation. There is another possibility that might be initiated by an educational institution or association or by an informal group of faculty members situated within commuting distance of each other. This is the small self-selected task force that with the assistance of a competent consultant meets together regularly to achieve specified educational goals. Not only can such a task force achieve important scholarship gains, but the stimulation of learning together can offer rich opportunities for the formulation and extension of social work knowledge. As with more formal study, the success of such a plan may be dependent on sustained work over a period of time.

As possibilities for faculty development are explored, many others that can offer structure and opportunity for continued growth will suggest themselves. In the last analysis an additional ingredient is essential —that of serious individual study by individual faculty members. Fortunately rich materials for such study are now available in professional and academic journals, in treatises and textbooks, and in a variety of scholarly presentations. There can be no substitute for this individual learning.

Time is of the essence. Undergraduate education for social work requires competent faculty with the will for continuing mastery of their professional discipline. Such faculty are the sine qua non of excellence in social work education.

SUMMARY

The Syracuse project has given attention to educational processes, curriculum, field instruction, the continuum, and use of baccalaureate personnel. Movement in all these areas can be distinguished in presently developing programs. This report suggests content, structure, and ways of operation that can be utilized to realize the potential of undergraduate social work education. As such it can serve as an important resource for this generation's social work practitioners and educators in building education for ever improved levels of social work service.

Part Two

Task Force on Educational Processes

INTRODUCTION

Kay L. Dea

The material included in this task force report is designed to address three areas in undergraduate education for social work: (1) the problems and processes involved in developing educational objectives, (2) the processes involved in curriculum-building, and (3) the application of learning and teaching theories to social work education.

In preparing these materials, task force members shared responsibility for the development of a basic framework through which educational processes and theories could be applied to the field of social work education. The models developed in this report represent the composite thinking of the task force members, although individual members were responsible for preparing specific papers.

It is recognized that the models presented in this report do not form a comprehensive representation of the many approaches that have been used in curriculum development and teaching. Task force members suggest that the serious student of educational processes refer to the literature cited in this report for additional concepts and references.

It is expected that this report can provide only a beginning insight into the unique problems related to the formal application of educational theories to the field of social work. It is recognized that every profession has implicit and explicit components that collectively constitute its basic character. In addressing this subject it was assumed that these components must be identified and addressed as educational theories are applied to the development of social work education and practice.

The format for this report consists of one paper devoted to the concepts of educational objectives and curriculum-building and a second devoted to the application of teaching and learning theories. In presenting these papers, task force members are especially indebted to Augustin Root of Syracuse University for his continued interest and many suggestions.

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EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES AND CURRICULA FOR SOCIAL WORK

Kay L. Dea

The purposes of this paper are to consider the problems and processes involved in developing educational objectives for social work and to develop a model for curriculum-building in social work education. The writer will identify some of the specific problems faced by social work educators as they develop educational objectives, identify alternate approaches for developing objectives, and discuss the various relationships that exist among objectives, curriculum-building and teaching methodology.

There are many equally good strategies that can be used to define educational objectives. They can be defined from multiple positions representing single or composite reference groups. It is appropriate for them to be stated in specific or global terms, depending on their function in the educational system. Good educational programs in social work contain multiple objectives or subobjectives interrelated across different levels of complexity. The process of defining educational objectives is legitimate only when it facilitates related educational activities leading to the eventual transmission and acquisition of knowledge, whether cognitive, affective, or skill oriented.

This means, then, that the formulation of educational objectives involves a series of conscious choices and compromises on the part of faculty members. It means that faculty must distinguish between those goals that are feasible and those that are unlikely in a given set of educational circumstances. It means that faculty must mediate among the demands of the community, the students, and the university in defining programs related to the activities and behaviors that graduates will be expected to assume. It means that educational objectives must provide the teacher not only with the ends to be sought, but also with a vision of the means by which they may be achieved.

To a large extent anyone undertaking an analysis of educational objectives in social work enters uncharted territory. It is consequently difficult at this time to do much more than identify the major issues. Little has been reported in the social work literature concerning the preparation of educational objectives. Although we accept the logic that specification of objectives is the first step in curriculum-building, few educators have taken the opportunity to analyze the vicissitudes of this activity. As a result educational programs have too often been established in relation to hastily defined objectives that lack specificity and clarity.

FAILURE TO SPECIFY GOALS

The writer has visited several university campuses as a consultant to undergraduate programs in social welfare. One of the first questions routinely posed on these visits has been to ask faculty members to identify the general and specific objectives of their programs, to discuss the relationship of these objectives to the overall goals and philosophy of the university, and to discuss how the social welfare curriculum relates to these objectives.

The responses have been disturbing. Most departments do have descriptive statements of goals in their catalogs, but faculty members appear to have given little attention to these in curriculum-building. Relationships among specific course objectives, social welfare curriculum objectives, and general educational objectives of the university have not been defined. Few colleges have moved from general descriptive statements of educational objectives to an elaboration of course objectives as they form an interrelated network of curriculum goals. Almost no attention has been given to explicating the terminal behavior expected of students enrolled in courses. In many cases programs appear to have evolved haphazardly as persons with specific interests have joined the faculty or as students or social work agencies have demanded new courses and funds have been provided for their development.

REASONS FOR THIS FAILURE

Why have these departments failed to elaborate and specify their general goals? Although there are no empirical data to support any conclusions, several hypotheses can be made:

Part of the problem may relate to the ambiguity of the task itself. The term objective can have several meanings. In the context of social work education it may refer to the aims or goals of the teacher, university, social welfare department, students, profession, or education in general. Objectives may relate to the subject matter to be mastered by students. They may relate to the specific skills needed to enter social work practice. They may be specific or general, immediate or ultimate, simple or complex, tangible or intangible. In short, objectives may be almost anything to almost anyone. To the extent that the term means different things to different people responsible for the same program, developing objectives may be a confusing task that interferes with the smooth operation of programs.

A second major problem that appears to interfere with the specification of objectives in social work education is the status of the profession itself. To some extent the social work profession has not defined its functions clearly. In the past social workers tended to accept responsibility for modifying or resolving all social problems as they affect individuals, groups, and society. In doing so we tended to take the position that we were prepared to be "all things to all people." Today social workers are not certain for what kinds of emerging practice students should be prepared. We debate the knowledge and skills that are required for effective work in society and we speculate about the skills that will be needed in the future. We struggle to develop viable new systems for the differential utilization or staff members with diverse educational preparation while concurrently we expect educational institutions to prepare personnel for these "new" jobs now. Little attention is given in doctoral and master's degree programs to the preparation of teachers. Processes involved in curriculum development are generally ignored in advanced programs.

As educators we maintain vested interests in curriculum areas. We are reluctant to redefine the educational continuum if it dramatically alters the curriculum with which we are personallv identified. At the same time we recognize that programs must change dynamically over time if they are to meet the needs of a changing society. It appears, then, that intellectually we make no claims about the enduring validity of any curriculum while emotionally we fight any efforts to modify or change existing programs.

Practitioners have acted in a similar fashion. In this role social workers have been threatened by the demands to integrate non-MSWs fully into the professional systems. Proposals for new service delivery systems have been attacked on the basis that they will destroy the social work profession as it now exists. We have debated whether the National Association of Social Workers should open its membership to persons with baccalaureate degrees. At the same time we have recognized that it is impossible for the profession to assume responsibility for the delivery of social services if the majority of persons delivering these services are not eligible for professional membership. Likewise we have recognized that social work practice cannot be static, but must be shaped by the peculiarities of time, place, and circumstance.

All these issues complicate the task of curriculum-building. In a sense they force educators to become professional gamblers, placing bets on the future. It should be pointed out, however, that they also provide educators with an opportunity to mold and shape creatively the destiny of social work. It is not enough for teachers to look backward to see where we have been or to look at the present to see where we are. We must develop a vision of what we can become and assist our students to that end. This is the challenge that makes specification of objectives in social work education both difficult and exciting.

At this time we should not become overly defensive or upset with the status of the profession and its educational system. The issues and problems that currently confront and divide the profession are not necessarily signs of ill health, but may actually be signs of strength and maturity. David has said:

> . . . The profession that is quite content with the ways in which its new members are educated and trained is patently in a state of rigor mortis. Dissatisfactions reflect, among other things, dynamic changes in professional knowledge and skills, fresh perceptions of the potentialities and responsibilities of a profession,

> efforts to redefine the role of a profession and the work of its members, or significant changes in the societal world in which practitioners function.[1]

He feels that dissatisfaction and criticism should be viewed as signs of "vigor and health."

A third problem that confronts social work is the complexity and the rapidly accelerated obsolescence of subject matter. If students are to be prepared for responsible roles in the profession and society in general, it is not sufficient to focus on the functions of social work as presently conceived. The functions of the other human service professions and the interrelationships among professions must also be defined. The value systems applicable to the field of social welfare must be explicitly stated as well as those that give social work its distinct identity. Since the task of educators is to prepare students to understand human behavior in the context of the world in which they live, we must deal with the web of knowledge, skills, and values that stretches across virtually all of the social and physical sciences. At a recent institute for undergraduate educators the frustrations felt in developing a comprehensive curriculum to deal with the vast areas of knowledge in social welfare were expressed by a participant who exclaimed: "It is impossible to teach students what they need to know for practice. If we include all content areas, we basically include all knowledge available to man. To focus upon curriculum at this level produces meaningless generalities." [2]

This person was correct in his observation. Since the time and resources of schools are limited, priorities must be assigned to various content areas. An evaluation must be made of how critical a specific knowledge, skill, or value is to the performance of social work. The relationship of content areas to the values and philosophies of the university and the general objectives of the social welfare sequence must be assessed. More important, students must have instilled within them a lifetime commitment to learning. We must interpret our activities to those responsible for agency staff development, in-service training, and continuing education, assuring that a dialogue is established for coordinating educational efforts across the community.

In all these efforts programming must be aimed at achieving maximum growth in students, emphasizing both professional knowledge and liberal education. It seems evident that we become better practitioners, not only through the acquisition of professional knowledge and skills, but also through those humanizing experiences that enable us to understand the world in which we live.

We become better practitioners as we develop other interests that serve to refresh us from the battles of practice—that enable us to fulfill our potential as total persons. Boulding has remarked:

> It must never be forgotten that the ultimate thing which any society is producing is people. All other things are intermediate goods, and all organizations are

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[1] Henry David, "Education for the Professions: Common Issues, Problems, and Prospects," *Journal of Education for Social Work*, Vol. 3, No. 1, p. 9, Spring 1967.

[2] From questions directed to the writer at a summer institute for new social work faculty sponsored by the Council on Social Work Education and held in Park City, Utah, August 17-23, 1969.

> intermediate organizations. No matter how rich we are or how powerful we are, if we do not produce people who can at least begin to expand into the enormous potential of man, the society must be adjudged a failure.[8]

The task of defining goals that comprehensively order the vast knowledge areas of social welfare and social work is not an easy one. It presents social work with major challenges and concomitant opportunities.

SOLUTIONS TO THESE PROBLEMS

But let us not focus out attention only on the *problems* with which we are confronted. What are some of the solutions to these problems? How can educational objectives that serve the combined needs of our various constituents truly be defined? To what extent can learning concepts and theories be borrowed from other disciplines to assist us in our work? What are the specific activities to which we must direct our attention in curriculum-building?

It is apparent that solutions to the profession's educational problems will not come easily. It also seems apparent that they will require extensive time and concerted effort on the part of both educators and practitioners. To a large extent educational programs will mature only as we dare to test experimentally new ideas and programs in both practice and education. They will mature only as we dare, in our search for new approaches, to risk the consequences of full-blown failures. They will mature only as we refine our own theoretical frameworks for practice and education, modifying and adapting concepts borrowed from related disciplines. The task before us is a difficult one, but not without hope or direction.

DEFINING EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

One of the first areas to which attention must be directed is to obtain a clear definition of the term *educational objective*. We must develop a conceptual framework that enables us both to distinguish educational objectives that define the behavioral changes expected in students as a result of instructional programs and general objectives related to nonteaching functions. It is important not to confuse these objectives. They serve different functions and require different kinds of specificity.

General objectives may be stated in global terms that do little more than identify and sanction college activities. They may be process rather than goal oriented. They provide administrators and faculty members with a framework for assigning priorities to various activities and for allocating staff time and other resources.

Examples include the functional objective of providing research, consultation, and other services to community groups, the idealistic objective of "expanding the boundaries of man's knowledge," the specific administrative objective of increasing student enrollment, and the general objective of obtaining increased status among the various departments of the university for the department of social welfare. Although these objectives are extremely important to the operation of colleges, we must constantly be cognizant of the fact that they exist apart from or in relation to curriculum or educational programs. Their presence should not be permitted to cloud and confuse educational activities.

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[8] Kenneth E. Boulding, "Expecting the Unexpected: The Uncertain Future of Knowledge and Technology," *Prospective Changes in Society by 1980, Including Some Implications for Education* (Denver, 1966), p. 213.

Unlike general objectives, educational objectives require some degree of specificity and a definite focus on goals rather than processes. Since they define that point in knowledge, skills, and values that a student is expected to reach on completion of a specific course of study, they must be what Loewenberg has called student centered, activity focused, and content-specific.[4] This means that they must explicitly describe those behaviors a student will be capable of manifesting on completion of the program, rather than the activities of the teacher during the program.

When objectives are defined clearly in this manner, they provide faculty members with a vision of the specific content to be taught. They suggest appropriate alternatives for ordering and structuring this content across the curriculum. They assist in the specification of teaching methods and they provide behavioral criteria for assessing student performance. In many ways it is hard to conceive of any instructional activity existing independently of well-defined educational goals.

This should not imply, however, that there is no place for the global educational objective—the nonspecified objective that fails to define student behavior operationally. On the contrary, educational objectives may be developed for different purposes.

They may be general as well as specific, depending on their functions in the educational system. For example, the Council on Social Work Education suggests that social welfare departments consider the adoption of four educational objectives: to prepare students for (1) responsible citizenship, (2) practice in social welfare agencies, (3) graduate social work education, (4) graduate education in the other helping professions.[5] Although these objectives as stated are of little value to teachers as they define instructional processes, they do serve a meaningful function in directing the thinking of new teachers as they move into social work education.

In a similar fashion one may use a global educational objective as a point of entry into an educational system, specifying instructional objectives as more detailed behavioral goals can be identified. In other words, global educational objectives are valid to the extent that they assist in developing specific objectives.

Although this position may seem to be overstated and possibly academic in nature, it is extremely important for social work educators, who are concerned largely with areas that are difficult to define in behavioral terms. It follows, therefore, that efforts at curriculum-building may have to flow from objectives defined at different levels of specification, lest we become so involved in defining objectives that we fail to consider their curriculum implications at all.

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[4] Frank M. Loewenberg, "Designing an Undergraduate Social Welfare Program for the Nineteen Seventies," *Proceedings of the Upstate New York Undergraduate Conference for the Social Services* (Syracuse: Syracuse University School of Social Work, May 1, 1968), p. 5.

[5] Guide to Undergraduate Programs in Social Welfare. (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1967), p. 6.

ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES

The final area social workers must consider in relation to objectives concerns the alternative approaches that may be used in their development. In approaching this area the writer has accepted the premise that a multiplicity of approaches are available. Each college and faculty member must select from the alternatives available those that are consistent with the learning theories and philosophies to which the faculties ascribe.

This means, then, that no approach is clearly superior to all others; each has specific strengths and weaknesses to be considered. A combination of approaches is probably superior to one.

The strategy for preparing educational objectives that has probably been emphasized most often by curriculum experts is that of analyzing the tasks currently being performed by persons occupying the roles for which students are being trained. This approach is based on the logic that behavioral goals for students can best be defined as those behaviors currently required of professional workers are identified. Although this approach has much to commend it as a beginning point for curriculum development, it has major limitations for social work education when used alone.

In the first place it emphasizes the status quo. It assumes that what is desired is to prepare students to perform the tasks that are currently being performed. It assumes that the practice structures from which we are operating have been clearly defined and validated. Circular in nature, it prepares students for a practice inflexibly bound to the profession's past failures and problems.

A second problem with this approach relates to the philosophy that most colleges have adopted with respect to social welfare education. In general faculty members have elected consciously not to prepare students for specific practice in specific fields of practice. Given this philosophical framework one must ask to what extent specific task analyses by themselves serve to define objectives adequately. It seems evident that they must be supplemented with other activities.

Time does not permit an elaboration of all these activities; however, among them are the following:

1. Problem analyses—the study of current social problems and the services needed to combat them.
2. Historical analyses—the study of the past to understand the present and give perspective to the future.
3. *Contemporary system analyses*—an identification of the conditions of contemporary life that act on professional programs, colleges, and students, and demands they make, and the opportunities they provide.
4. *Consumer analysis*—an identification of the students enrolled in these programs and those preparing for the programs: their needs, present level of development, expectations, strengths, and limitations.
5. *Expert opinions*—the compilation of individual and collective

opinions from practitioners and educational leaders to assist in defining gaps and limitations in current programs, identify trends in practice, and specify program alternatives.

6. *Educational and practice research*—controlled experimental studies to test out new approaches in structuring educational and professional programs; other research to compile empirical data on practice and educational processes.

7. *Curriculum models*—an analysis of existing and proposed curriculum structures including an assessment of the internal consistency within each model.

It is clear that none of these approaches alone will provide the information needed to identify and specify educational objectives for social work. In combination, however, they should facilitate an insight into social work education that is desperately needed—an insight that can assist in resolving the difficult problems associated with curriculum-building. Social work educators have a unique opportunity to forge ahead in this area.

CURRICULUM-BUILDING

But let us now turn our attention to the process of curriculum-building itself. Once educational objectives have been defined, how can educators develop curricula to assure that these objectives are achieved? How can curriculum content and organizing principles that facilitate continuity, sequence, and integration across curriculum areas be identified?

In 1968, Aptekar defined the process of curriculum-building as a "sequence of steps and stages, foreseen and consciously used . . . to integrate into a coherent whole a set of diverse parts."[6] His paper emphasizes that a curriculum must be more than a conglomerate of theoretical content, courses, and sequence areas. He suggests that it must be a composite of educational objectives, related content, and instructional strategies, integrated to provide a coordinated system for achieving educational goals. A rational approach to developing this type of curriculum includes activities at two levels across three sequential stages. One of the objectives of this paper is to articulate these levels and stages in an attempt to specify a rational approach to curriculum-building and teaching.

The concept of levels has been adopted to describe the extent to which the conceptual activities of the curriculum-builder relate to the total process of curriculum-building or to specific stages and pieces of that process. Curriculum-building consists of a sequence of steps and stages that require a variety of decisions on the part of the curriculum-builder. The decisions to be made at each stage can be facilitated through the use of conceptual screens through which alternate curriculum packages and approaches can be identified and filtered. These screens may be developed at two levels: specific screens to guide decisionmaking at each stage and a general screen to provide direction across the total process. These conceptual screens exist at both levels, implicitly or explicitly, in all curriculum-building, regardless of whether the eduator is aware of them. However, the process of curriculum-building becomes more rational as these screens are clarified and explicated to form a conceptual framework that can be used consciously to assess alternate curriculum approaches.

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[6] Herbert Aptekar, "The Curriculum Building Process," *Journal of Education for Social Work*, Vol. 4, No. 2 (Fall 1968), pp. 5-14.

CONCEPTUAL SCREENS

The general screen that gives direction to all phases of the curriculum-building process consists of at least three parts: (1) the philosophies, values, and ethics of the profession, (2) the philosophies, values, and educational objectives of the university, and (3) the philosophies, values, and objectives of the social welfare department within the university. In all stages of curriculum-building one must ask: To what extent are the educational objectives, the subject content areas, and the program structures under consideration consistent with the value systems of the university, the larger community, and the profession? To what extent will the emerging programs meet the needs both of society and of students? To what extent the programs being developed within the sanctions of society?

In a day of radical student protests this position may sound unusually conservative and subject to the status quo. Nevertheless, if undergraduate social welfare programs are to prepare students for practice they must prepare them in the context of the social and professional sanctions that underlie practice. This does not imply that the values of society or professional social work are or should be static or that students should be prepared only for today's practice. On the contrary, students must be prepared for tomorrow and the days thereafter. They must be taught that society is continually changing. They must be prepared to influence this change, to continue to learn, grow, and develop after they leave school. Only then will social work graduates be prepared to carry their professional responsibilities into the 21st century.

In addition to the general philosophical areas already discussed as part of an overall conceptual screen, evaluative techniques at this general level must be added to assure that attention is given continuously to assessing the consistency of decisions made at each stage. These evaluative techniques must provide educators with feedback about the problems and processes encountered at every stage in the educational process. Coupled with the general philosophy and value screen already cited, they tend to assure that educators will approach the subject of curriculum-building with some degree of continuity and consistency. (See Figure 1.)

The more specific conceptual screens that belong to the second level in the classification provide direction for decisionmaking at each of the sequential stages in the educational process. Consequently it is necessary to discuss these screens in relation to the specific stages with which they are associated.

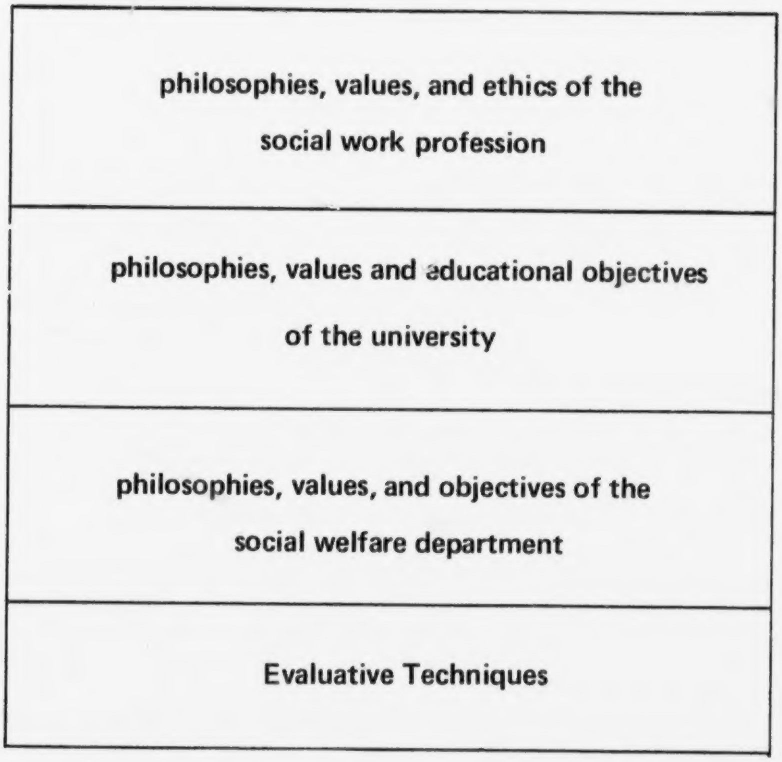
philosophies, values, and ethics of the social work profession
philosophies, values and educational objectives of the university
philosophies, values, and objectives of the social welfare department
Evaluative Techniques

Figure 1. A General Conceptual Screen for Curriculum-Building in Social Work

SEQUENTIAL STAGES IN CURRICULUM-BUILDING

There are three sequential stages in curriculum-building and teaching: (1) the identification and specification of educational objectives, (2) the identification, specification, and organization of curriculum content related to these objectives, and (3) the organization and evaluation of instructional techniques. Let us turn to each of these stages in their logical sequence:

Educational objectives. The development of educational objectives is the first step in curriculum-building. A variety of different analyses may assist the educator in defining these objectives, and educators should adopt multiple approaches in their development.

Two decision-making screens seem to exist at this stage, one through which global goals may be identified and one through which these global goals may be specified in terms of educational objectives.

The first screen serves the purpose of surveying the scene in which the program is to be developed. It consists of an analysis of the university, the community, and students. Among the specific questions to be addressed are these: Who wants the program? Why is the program needed? What purposes will it serve? What resources are available for its development? In what way will the program affect the political and power structures of the university and the general community? Where will the program be located? What are the characteristics of the sponsoring institution? Who will be enrolled? What are the characteristics of potential students?

An analysis of these questions should enable social work educators to establish general goals for their programs. It is from these general goals that educational objectives are specified. Examples include preparing students for practice and for graduate education.

The techniques and conceptual screens that may be utilized to specify these general educational goals will vary from one institution to another depending on the goals to be specified and the university and faculty resources available. In the case of the global objective "to prepare students for social work practice," the following analytic framework has already been developed:

1. Task analyses that serve to identify the practice skills that will be required of students after they graduate.

2. Problem analyses that serve to identify the vicissitudes of the problems with which students will be working.

3. Contemporary system analyses that serve to identify the conditions of contemporary life that act on professional programs, colleges, and students.

4. Student consumer analyses that identify the basic knowledge, skills, and values with which students enter school.

5. Client consumer analyses that identify the needs, strengths, and limitations of those persons receiving social services.

6. Historical analyses that provide a perspective of current social problems in relation to the social conditions and services of the past.

7. Research analyses in which practice and education are systematically subjected to descriptive and experimental studies.

The total sequence of activities in this stage can be summarized diagramatically. (See Figure 2.)

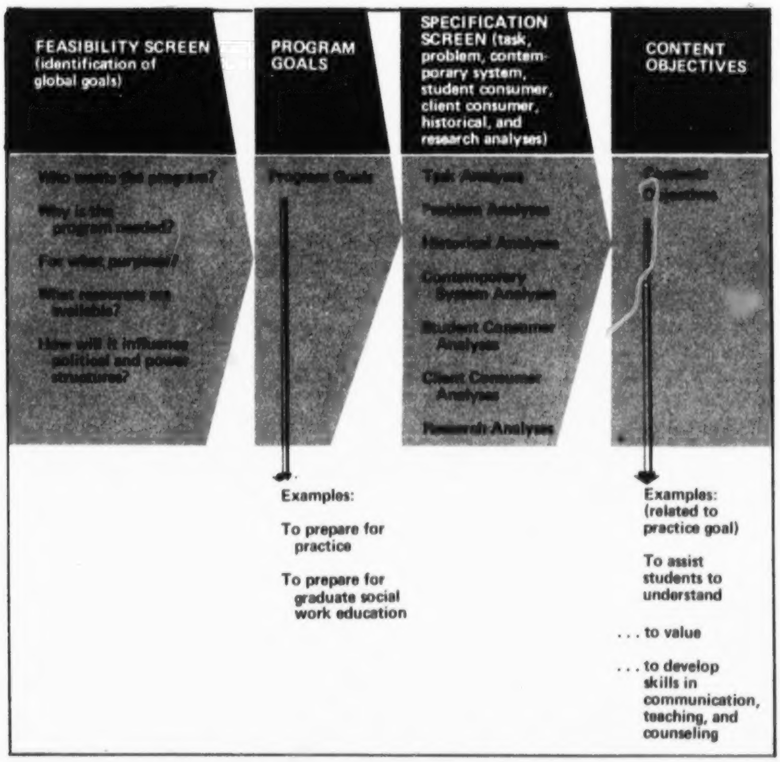
FEASIBILITY SCREEN (identification of global goals)
PROGRAM GOALS
SPECIFICATION SCREEN (task, problem, contemporary system, student consumer, client consumer, historical, and research analyses)
CONTENT OBJECTIVES
Who wants the program?
Why is the program needed?
For what purpose?
What resources are available?
How will it influence political and power structures?
Program Goals
Task Analyses
Problem Analyses
Historical Analyses
Contemporary System Analyses
Student Consumer Analyses
Client Consumer Analyses
Research Analyses
Content Objectives
Examples:
To prepare for practice
To prepare for graduate social work education
Examples: (related to practice goal)
To assist students to understand
. . . to value
. . . to develop skills in communication, teaching, and counseling

Figure 2. The First Stage in Curriculum-Building: Identification and Specification of Educational Objectives

Curriculum content. The second stage in curriculum development consists of specifying the knowledge, skills, and values that students must master in relation to content objectives. It includes the process of organizing and structuring this content into curriculum packages. At this stage concern is primarily with the principles of continuity, sequence, and integration—with organizing the curriculum in relation to a general philosophy of education that consolidates and reinforces student learning across curriculum content areas.

Consequently educational philosophies and principles of learning become important conceptual screens through which decisions must be filtered. In addition the decision-making screen at this stage must include an assessment of the resources and facilities available at the university through which content can be structured and programmed. For example, one must determine to what extent specific content areas may be taught by other departments in the university. One must decide which knowledge, skills, and values will be taught in the social welfare sequence, by whom, and in what order.

Again this stage may be presented diagramatically. (See Figure 3.)

Instructional strategies. The third stage in the educational process is that of operationalizing specific curriculum content into instructional packages. Technically this stage exceeds the bounds of curriculum-building to address the question of how learning on the part of the student can be facilitated. However, this question must be addressed in relation to the other educational processes already discussed if one is to assure that teaching strategies reinforce curriculum integration.

Basically the process of defining instructional strategies consists of three steps: (1) the formulation of instructional objectives, defined in explicit terms that focus on those behaviors desired in the student on completion of the program, (2) the development of student learning experiences, and (3) the specification of evaluative techniques that can be used to assess student performance. These processes provide a basis for defining both teacher and student activities as they confront each other across various learning episodes.

Although it may be argued that each of the steps in this stage requires a separate conceptual screen for decisionmaking, one screen can serve all areas. Variables to be considered include the following: (1) a detailed analysis of curriculum objectives, including an analyses of organizing principles that cut across objectives and content areas, (2) an analysis of learning principles articulated in different learning theories, (3) an assessment of student characteristics, and (4) an assessment of teaching media and other resources available within the university.

Most important among these considerations is a knowledge of the students to be served. The creative teacher relates to students across their needs rather than across the needs of the institution or his personal whims. He finds ways to relate curriculum content to the world in which students live. Consequently social work educators must assess the strengths and weaknesses of students. We must understand the forces that shape their lives. We must determine the learning patterns with which they are comfortable and the extent to which they possess pre-

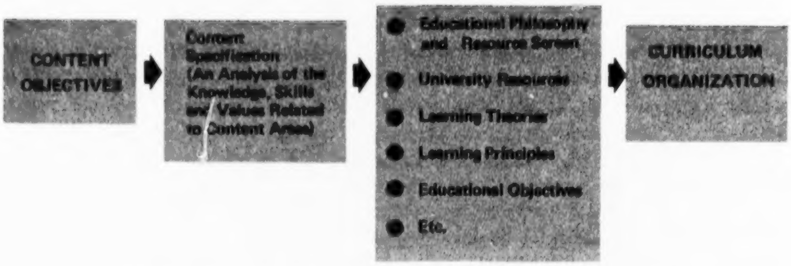
CONTENT OBJECTIVES
Content Specification (An Analysis of the Knowledge, Skills and Values Related to Content Areas)
Educational Philosophy and Resource Screen
University Resources
Learning Theories
Learning Principles
Educational Objectives
Etc.
CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION

Figure 3. The Curriculum Organization Stage in the Educational Process

requisites for specific learning experiences. In short, if we are to teach students, we must first let them teach us.

The steps involved in defining instructional strategies are summarized in Figure 4.

The total process to which this paper has been addressed can be graphically summarized by superimposing the processes developed at each stage in the educational process on the general philosophical screen that underlies all curriculum activities. The final product, then, is a three-dimensional approach to curriculum-building and teaching. (See Figure 5).

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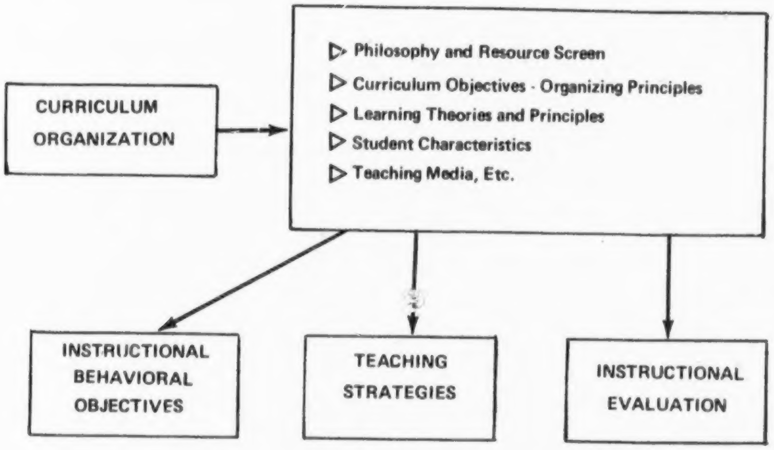
CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION
▷ Philosophy and Resource Screen
▷ Curriculum Objectives - Organizing Principles
▷ Learning Theories and Principles
▷ Student Characteristics
▷ Teaching Media, Etc.
INSTRUCTIONAL BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES
TEACHING STRATEGIES
INSTRUCTIONAL EVALUATION

Figure 4. Steps Involved in Developing Instructional Strategies

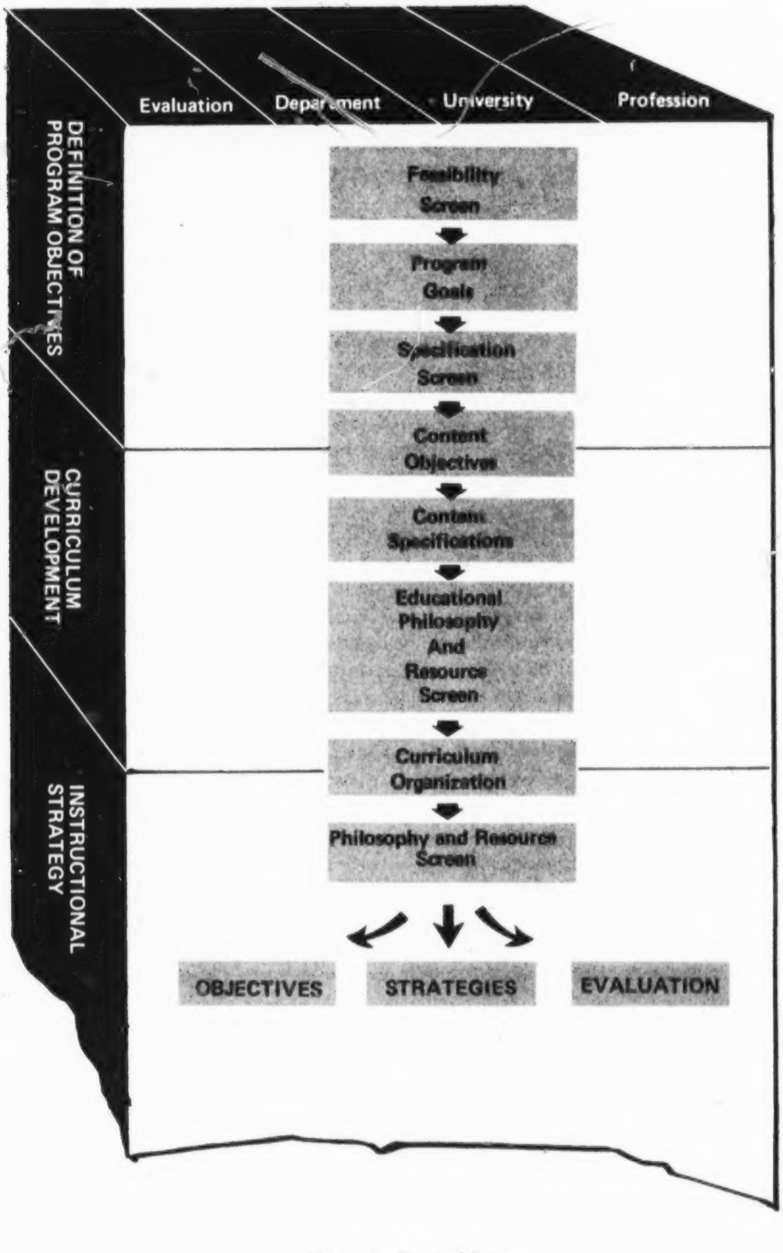
Evaluation
Department
University
Profession
DEFINITION OF PROGRAM OBJECTIVES
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT
INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY
Feasibility Screen
Program Goals
Specification Screen
Content Objectives
Content Specifications
Educational Philosophy And Resource Screen
Curriculum Organization
Philosophy and Resource Screen
OBJECTIVES
STRATEGIES
EVALUATION

Figure 5. General Screen

LEARNING THEORIES, INSTRUCTIONAL AND EXPENSIVE OBJECTIVES, AND EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION

Marguerite V. Pohek

As a supplement to the major report of the Task Force on Educational Processes, this paper will review and summarize some of the more significant literature on three topics: (1) how what we know about learning bears on the educational process, (2) differences between instructional and expressive objectives and their interrelationship, and (3) the role of educational evaluation.

RELEVANCE OF LEARNING THEORIES TO THE LEARNING-TEACHING PROCESS

The literature on theories of learning is vast. Wide differences in interpretation of many of the facts with which learning theorists are concerned and distinctions between basic and applied research on learning are frequently difficult to bridge. Nor do we always have any clear idea of precisely how some of the theories can be "translated" into more effective achievement of educational objectives and improved teaching.

There is also no definition of learning on which all theorists agree. As a starting point, however, one may take Hilgard's provisional definition:

> Learning is the process by which an activity originates or is changed through reacting to an encountered situation, provided that the characteristics of the change in activity cannot be explained on the basis of native response tendencies, maturation, or temporary states of the organism . . . .[1]

Various theorists have suggested groupings of theories or principles that appear to them to be of prime importance. Descriptions of each follow:

GAGE—THREE FAMILIES OF LEARNING THEORY

Gage, for example, speaks of three "families of learning theory": (1) *conditioning theory,* in which learning is conceived in all its forms to be a matter of conditioning, with primary or secondary reinforcements associated with independent or response-dependent stimulation; (2) *identification theory,* for which learning consists in major part of the learner's identification with a model whom the learner imitates, and (3) *cognitive theory*, in which learning is a matter of cognitive restructuring of problem situations. Each of the three has broad implications for the learning-teaching process. And all three Gage considers to be compatible, since they have been "developed to account for different data—for the learning of different kinds of things in different situations." [2]

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[1] Ernest R. Hilgard and Gordon H. Bower, *Theories of Learning* (3d ed.; New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1966), p. 2.

WALLEN AND TRAVERS—SIX LEARNING PRINCIPLES

Wallen and Travers select six learning principles: (1) "Behavior which represents the achievement or partial achievement of an educational objective should be reinforced." (2) Introducing cues that "arouse motivation toward the achievement of an educational objective will increase the effectiveness with which that objective is achieved." The optimum level of motivation should be sought. (3) The likelihood of transfer of learning to new problems is increased when the learner has had practice in applying a similar principle to the solution of previous problems. (4) In the light of learners' differing capacities to make the responses to be acquired, learning will be most efficient if it is planned so that each learner embarks on a program commensurate with his capacity to acquire new responses. (5) If the learner actually makes the responses to be learned, this is more efficient than his observation of another person making the response or some related response. (6) Learning can take place by observing demonstrations of the skills to be acquired if the learner has had training in imitation.[3]

MILLER—FOUR FUNDAMENTAL FACTORS

Writing within a somewhat similar framework, Miller spells out what seem to him to be the four fundamental factors in teaching-learning: [4] (1) *Drive* (motivation): "the student must want something." (2) *Cue* (stimulus): "he must notice something." Learning, Miller says, is the connection of responses to new cues. Learning can also involve "acquiring discriminations which make responses more specific to the correct cues." [5] (3) *Response* (participation): "he must do something." (4) *Reward* (reinforcement): "he must get something he wants." In other words "knowledge of results can serve as a reward to strengthen correct responses," and "can also function . . . to eliminate incorrect responses and as guidance in correcting errors." It must be kept in mind also that "immediate rewards are more effective than delayed ones." [6]

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[2] N. L. Gage, "Theories of Teaching," in Ernest R. Hilgard, ed., *Theories of Learning and Instruction*, 63rd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), pp. 276–277.

[3] Norman E. Wallen and Robert M. W. Travers, "Analysis and Investigation of Teaching Methods," in N. L. Gage, ed., *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963), pp. 494–500.

[4] Neal A. Miller, *Graphic Communication and the Crisis in Education* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, Department of Audiovisual Communication, 1957), pp. 63 ff.

[5] Ibid., p. 76.

[6] Ibid., pp. 99, 98.

McKEACHIE—SEVEN LEARNING PRINCIPLES

Viewing the question of learning from a somewhat broader base, McKeachie speaks of seven "learning principles" relevant to teaching methods.[7] First, there is motivation, with positive and negative motivation affecting student learning differently. If a learner's interest in thinking is to be developed, it must be made satisfying and learners must have experience in solving problems within their ken. "This by no means implies that the [learner] should never experience failure or criticism, but it does mean that the problems which he faces should, more often than not, be soluble." Nor are the learner's motives fixed once and for all; use must be made of existing motives to create initial satisfactions in learning, but new motives can also be created in the process of learning.

Second, organization, or the provision of a framework in which the learner can fit new facts and experiences, is important. It may well be, he says, that "the more we teach, the less our students learn"; beyond a certain point "mental dazzle" may lead to confusion and inefficiency.

Third are the two factors of variability and verbalization. Since the number of situations in which knowledge must be used can be infinite, the learner must be able in the course of his learning to experience specific instances of each principle in varying contexts, and verbalization "can help the [learner] identify the common elements in these situations and shorten the learning process."

Last, but of equal significance, come the three factors of feedback, contiguity, and active learning. While it is true that learners must translate into behavior and practice what they are learning, practice alone is not enough. "Practice works only if the learner sees the results of his practice, i.e., if he receives feedback." When feedback is contiguous to the response being learned, it is more effective. "Active learning'.' McKeachie stresses, "is more efficient than passive learning," and furthermore it provides improved opportunities for feedback.

HILGARD'S FRAMEWORK

The framework the writer has found most useful is that developed by Hilgard, who more than anyone has worked on the formulation of learning principles potentially useful in practice.[8] He points out that, despite the apparent quarrels of the theorists, "there are, in fact, a great many experimental relationships of practical importance upon which the theorists are in substantial agreement." He prefers to use the term principles in quotation marks, since the generalizations he lists are "summarizations of empirical relationships that hold rather widely, although many of them are not stated with sufficient precision to consider them to be 'laws' of learning." It is his belief that the following suggestions for practice "are in large part acceptable to all parties . . . the assignment to one or another source is a matter of emphasis (and vocabulary) rather than an indication that the statement is controversial":

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[7] W. J. McKeachie, "Research on Teaching at the College and University Level," in Gage, ed., op. cit., pp. 1119–1122.

[8] Ernest R. Hilgard, "Applicability of Learning 'Principles' and Learning Theories," in Hilgard and Bower, op. cit., pp. 462–572.

1. Stimulus-response theory:
   a. "The learner should be *active,* rather than a passive listener or viewer." The learner both initiates and responds by some form of action.
   b. "Frequency of repetition is still important in acquiring skill, and in bringing enough over-learning to guarantee retention." The learner must practice what he learns.
   c. "Reinforcement is important . . . it is generally found that positive reinforcements (rewards, successes) are to be preferred to negative reinforcements (punishments, failures)."
   d. Practice in a variety of contexts is essential if learning is to be appropriate to a wider—or to a more restricted—range of stimuli ("generalization and discrimination").
   e. Through imitation of models, cueing, and shaping, novelty in behavior can be enhanced: modeling (observational learning), cueing to a degree sufficient to guarantee a high level of response, and shaping by successive approximations.
   f. Drive (motivational) conditions play a significant role in learning. Not all motivation conforms to drive-reduction principles. Drive reduction is not enough. The individual is a stimulus-seeking as well as stimulus-reducing organism that may go out of its way to explore and master what is intriguing and challenging.
   g. A degree of conflict and frustration is inevitable in learning. Recognition, resolution, and accommodation of these must be provided.
2. Cognitive theory:
   a. A learning problem should be so structured and presented to the learner that its essential features are open to the inspection of the learner. "The perceptual features according to which the problem is displayed to the learner are important conditions of learning. (Figure-ground relationships, directional signs, what leads to what, organic interrelatedness.)"
   b. Organization of knowledge is of prime concern. ". . . The direction from simple to complex is not from arbitrary, meaningless parts to meaningful wholes, but instead from simplified wholes to more complex wholes." How complexity is patterned is important.
   c. "Learning with understanding is more permanent and more transferable than rote learning or learning by formula." While expressed in this form, the statement belongs in cognitive theory. Stimulus-response theories emphasize the importance of meaningfulness in learning and retention.
   d. "Cognitive feedback confirms correct knowledge and corrects faulty learning." This corresponds to stimulus-response reinforcement, but places more emphasis on a kind of hypothesis-testing through feedback.
   e. "Goal-setting by the learner is important as motivation for

learning." How he sets future goals is determined in considerable degree by his successes and failures.

f. "Divergent thinking, which leads to inventive solutions of problems or to the creation of novel and valued products is to be nutured along with convergent thinking, which leads to logically correct answers."

3. Motivation and personality theory:

a. "The learner's abilities are important." Slower and more rapid learners as well as those with specialized abilities must be provided for.

b. Early development as well as heredity and congenital factors determine ability and interest. "Hence the learner must be understood in terms of the influences that have shaped his development."

c. Since learning is culturally relative, both the wider culture and the subculture to which the learner belongs may affect his learning.

d. The "anxiety level of the learner may determine the beneficial or detrimental effects of certain kinds of encouragements to learn." High-anxiety learners may perform better if they are not reminded how well or poorly they are doing, while the reverse may be true with respect to low-anxiety learners.

e. "The same objective situation may tap appropriate motives for one learner and not for another." There is a contrast here, for example between those motivated by affiliation and those motivated by achievement.

f. "The organization of motives and values within the individual is relevant . . . long-range goals [may] affect short range activities."

g. "The group atmosphere of learning (e.g., competition versus cooperation, authoritarianism versus democracy, individual isolation versus group identification) will affect satisfaction in learning as well as products of learning."

A FEW POINTS

These are, in short, major principles likely to be useful in decision-making about educational experiences designed to aid the successful achievement of educational objectives by the learner. A few of these points will now be expanded slightly and several brief additions will be made.

Drives. With respect to drives it is essential to keep in mind that the individual is not driven into activity simply to free himself from painful or unpleasant excitation, tension, or conflict and to return to a state of rest and equilibrium. Instead, as Getzels says, he

> strives not only to master problems with which he is confronted but to confront problems in order to master them. There seems to be an optimal level of stimulation. Above this level, too much is problematic, i.e., too much is unknown. The consequence is frustration, and a decrease in stimulation is reinforcing. Below this level too little is problematic, i.e., too much is known. The consequence is boredom, and an increase in stimulation is reinforcing. One condition

> of creative thinking, in the classroom as elsewhere, is an optimum balance of stimulation, i.e., between the known and the unknown.[9]

Time. Consideration must also be given to the factor of time in learning. Carroll puts forward the assumption that in cognitive or skill learning the learner will reach a given objective to the extent that he spends the time necessary to follow through on any learning task.[10] He specifies three variables that may be defined directly in terms of time: (1) aptitude, which determines the rate of learning under optimal learning conditions, (2) motivation or perseverance, which has to do with the amount of time a person is willing to spend in learning, and (3) opportunity to learn, "defined as the amount of time actually allowed for learning." In some learning situations even highly motivated learners may be allowed insufficient time to learn; in others all learners may be expected to proceed at the same rate, thus compelling some constantly to lag behind.

Bloom, in commenting on Carroll's view, says:

> Implicit in this is the assumption that, given enough time all students can conceivably attain mastery of a learning task. If Carroll is right, then learning mastery is theoretically available to all if we can find the means for helping each student.[11]

Bloom sees this as having far-reaching implications for education. He recognizes that some students will of course attain mastery for more rapidly than others, but suggests that the amount of time necessary for mastering a subject can for most students be reduced by establishing more efficacious learning conditions.

> It seeems more reasonable to expect, for example, that some students will need more concrete illustrations and explanations than will others . . . some . . . may need more approval and reinforcement than others; and some students may even need several repetitions . . . while others may be able to get it the first time.[12]

It is his conclusion that there should be different time allocations for different students if they are to be able to learn a given aspect of any subject to the point of mastery.

Structure. Highly important on the cognitive side of learning is the concept of structure. Only as the learner is able to organize his learning to grasp what Bruner calls the "structure of the subject" is he enabled to go beyond the often overwhelming mass of knowledge that he constantly confronts, to learn it "essentially," to retain it in viable form, and to use it continuously as a basis for problem-solving and inquiry.

The Process of Education. Bruner puts forth a strong fourfold plea for learning the fundamental structure of any subject: (1) understanding fundamentals makes a subject more comprehensible, (2) unless detail is placed into a structured pattern it is rapidly forgotten, (3) understanding of fundamental principles and ideas appears to be the main road to adequate transfer of learning ,and (4) by constantly re-examining material for its fundamental character, one is able to narrow the gap between "advanced" and "elementary" knowledge.[13] Subsequently Bruner develops this idea further:

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[9] J. W. Getzels, "Creative Thinking, Problem-Solving and Instruction," in Hilgard, ed., op. cit., p. 266.

[10] John B. Carroll, "School Learning Over the Long Haul," (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1965), pp. 249–269.

[11] Benjamin S. Bloom, "Learning for Mastery," *Evaluation Comment* (UCLA) Vol. 1, No. 2 (May 1968), p. 3.

[12] Ibid., p. 4.

> . . . since the merit of a structure depends upon its power for simplifying information, for generating new propositions, and for increasing the manipulability of a body of knowledge, structure must always be related to the status and gifts of the learner; viewed in this way, the optimal structure of a body of knowledge is not absolute but relative.[14]

Elsewhere Bruner says:

> The structure of any domain of knowledge may be characterized in three ways, each affecting the ability of any learner to master it: the mode of representation in which it is put, its economy, and its effective power.[15]

Representation in turn takes place in three ways:

> . . . by a set of actions appropriate for achieving a certain result (enactive) ; by a set of summary images or graphics that stand for a concept without defining it fully (iconic representation) ; and by a set of symbolic or logical propositions drawn from a symbolic system that is governed by rules or laws for forming and transforming propositions (symbolic representation) .[16]

Economy refers to the amount of information that must be held in mind and processed to achieve comprehension, and the effective power of any given way of structuring a domain of knowledge refers to the generative value of a set of learned propositions.

Organization and Closure. Krathwohl, in his excellent discussion of the role of integration and structure in learning deals, inter alia, with two important aspects of learning, the economics of cognitive organization and the phenomenon of closure.[17] With respect to the former he refers to George A. Miller's studies, which have led him to the conclusion that we are in a position analogous to that of a man carrying a purse that will hold only seven coins. Obviously one can carry more wealth if one fills the purse with dimes rather than pennies. "Organization, and therefore integrating, can increase our capacity to learn through reducing a given amount of information to far fewer but richer packages."

As for closure—"the universal tendency (stronger in some people than in others) to perceive a complete whole where an incomplete structure actually exists"—it is important that the learner make the jump by himself.

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[13] Jerome S. Bruner, *The Process of Education* (New York: Random House, Vintage Books, 1960) .

[14] Jerome S. Bruner, *Toward a Theory of Instruction* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1966) , p. 41.

[15] Jerome S. Bruner, "Some Theorems of Instruction Illustrated with Reference to Mathematics," in Hilgard, ed., op. cit., pp. 309–310.

[16] Ibid., pp. 311–312.

[17] David R. Krathwohl, "The Psychological Bases for Integration," in Nelson B. Henry, ed., *The Integration of Educational Experiences*, 57th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part III (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958) , pp. 43–65.

> The use of closure in educational situations may be described as analogous to building an object such as a fireplace from bricks. You, as the teacher, put the bricks together to the point where the object is clearly recognizable as a fireplace. It is complete to the point that it cries out to the student to be finished. Leaving the bricks and mortar by the fireplace, you stand aside and leave the completion to the students. If the students complete the fireplace as you envisioned it, you have given them practice in integrating. If the completed fireplace differs from what you expected, you have been even more successful.

Krathwohl also makes a fundamental contribution to an understanding of the psychological principles that will help the teacher facilitate the student's achievement of integration in his learning. Briefly summarized these are as follows: (1) The student's background should be strengthened "so that the concepts to be grasped are well understood before integration is attempted." (2) The student's attention "should be guided to the points of similarity which form the basis of the integrative framework." (3) "It is essential that the integrative framework be at a conceptual level appropriate to the student's ability and maturity." (4) "If the exercise is likely to be threatening, either because of its context or the setting in which it takes place, efforts should be made to minimize the threat by establishing as permissive an atmosphere as possible." (5) "Students are more likely to do what is required if they know what is expected of them." Thus they should be aware that integration is a goal of the learning experience. (6) The students' various cultural backgrounds should be taken into consideration in the presentation of material. (7) The framework should be presented "in such a way that the student can accept it and make it his own but not feel bound by it—not feel that his capacity for independent thinking is being curbed." (8) "The teacher should model integrative behavior for the students" by helping them to see how he himself arrives at new conceptions and relationships and by sharing with them his own thrill and pleasure in grasping relationships and the organizational pattern.[18]

Transfer. Stemming in part from the concept of structure are important clues to the nature of the transfer of learning. It is not a question simply of specific applicability of learning to new tasks similar to those the learner has dealt with at the earlier stages of his learning. Far more significant, as Bruner recognizes so clearly, is what is called "nonspecific" transfer of learning, or

> the transfer of principles and attitudes. In essence, it consists of learning initially not a skill but a general idea which can then be used as a basis for recognizing subsequent problems as special cases of the idea originally mastered. . . . The more fundamental or basic the idea he has learned . . . the greater will be its breadth of applicability to new problems.[19]

"Positive transfer," he adds elsewhere, "represents a case where an appropriate coding system is applied to a new array of events." [20]

Convergent and Divergent Thinking. Another idea to which insufficient attention has been given in the literature is the fruitful distinction made by Guilford between convergent and divergent thinking processes in what the learner does with the vast amount of information with which he must deal today.[21] Convergent thinking has to do with generating new information that is maximally determined by information that is already known. Divergent thinking, on the other hand, has to do with new information that is determined only minimally by the information already known. It uses given information as a springboard, does not result in conventional answers, and is central to the learner's development of the capacity for creative thinking.

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[18] Ibid., pp. 62–63.

[19] Bruner, *The Process of Education*, pp. 17–18.

[20] Jerome S. Bruner, "Going Beyond the Information Given," in Bruner et al., eds., *Contemporary Approaches to Cognition* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1957.

Discovery Learning. Not unrelated to aspects of divergent thinking is the whole challenging and controversial question of what we have come to call discovery or inquiry learning. In its simplest beginning this may have to do with the exploration of alternatives, of which, as Bruner points out, there are three aspects, to "be described in shorthand terms as activation, maintenance, and direction. To put it another way, exploration of alternatives requires something to get it started, something to keep it going, and something to keep it from being random." [22] Exploration has its roots initially in the sense of some degree of uncertainty and ambiguity. Maintenance necessitates that the "benefits from exploring alternatives exceed the risks incurred. And the appropriate direction of exploration depends upon two interacting considerations: the sense of the goal of a task, and a knowledge of the relevance of tested alternatives to the achievement of that goal."

Discovery by its very nature posits the concept of diversity—a range of ideas to be explored, of hypotheses to be put forward. It is a kind of open-ended learning in which the "answers" are not known to the learner except through his own effort. Indeed, such answers may not even be known by the teacher. In view of its many proponents it is the creative, inventive, innovative side of learning that is still, alas, all too often ignored. It is what the learner must, *par excellence,* do for himself. It is a kind of learning in which the learner must be heavily involved if he is to learn at all.

Although perhaps given its greatest currency by Bruner, the concept of discovery learning has had extensive influence among the many educational groups concerned with new curricula, especially in the sciences.[23] In what is probably the most widely read and quoted single article on the subject, Bruner discusses, under four headings, the benefits to be derived from the experience of learning from discovery: (1) intellectual potency, that is, its ability to lead the learner to "organize what he is encountering in a manner not only designed to discover regularity and relatedness, but also to avoid the kind of information drift that fails to keep account of the uses to which information might have to be put," (2) intrinsic and extrinsic motives, in which the learner experiences to a high degree the powerful motive of "inner-directedness," (3) learning the heuristics of discovery, which can then be generalized "into a style of problem-solving or inquiry that serves for any kind of task," and (4) conservation of memory, taking as a premise that "the principal problem of human memory is not storage but retrieval," which is, in the final analysis, a question of problem-solving.[24]

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[21] J. P. Guilford and P. R. Merrifield, *The Structure of Intellect Model: Its Uses and Implications,* Report of Psychological Laboratory No. 24 (Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press, 1960). *See also* Guilford, "Intellectual Factors in Productive Thinking," in Mary Jane Aschner and Charles E. Bish, eds., *Productive Thinking in Education* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1968), pp. 6–20.

[22] Bruner, *Toward a Theory of Instruction,* p. 43.

[23] Bruner is perhaps the most widely known of these. Shulman, who has written widely on this subject, points out, however that Bruner is not the discoverer of discovery; he is its prophet.

Guided, Expository, and Reception Learning. In clear opposition to Bruner, Gagne and Ausubel, although often not in agreement with each other, propound the ideas of guided learning, expository learning, and reception learning.[25] Gagne's model, with problem-solving at the apex, posits the necessity for the learner first to take steps through a hierarchy of learning that extends, in its simplest form, from operant conditioned responses on up through concepts and principles. Despite this he would stand in essential agreement with Bruner on the "priority of processes over products as the objectives of instruction." In the forthcoming second edition of *The Conditions of Learning* he is doubtful about teaching students strategies or styles of thinking alone, and insists that "to be an effective problem solver the individual must have acquired masses of organized intellectual skills." For Gagne, as Shulman states it, "the objectives of instruction are intellectual skills or capabilities that can be specified in operational terms, can be task analyzed, and then can be taught." [26] In other words, objectives clearly delineated in operational terms are the cornerstones of Gagne's viewpoint.

Ausubel goes much further in holding that no kind of process—either strategy or skill—should be given priority in education objectives. As part of the development of his concept of meaningful verbal learning, he puts at the very heart this statement:

> If I had to reduce all of educational psychology to just one principle, I would say this: the most important single factor influencing learning is what the learner already knows, ascertain this and teach him accordingly.[27]

Self as Instrument. Before concluding this section, let us return for a moment to a further consideration of some of the ideas put forward by Hilgard under the heading of "principles from personality and motivation theory." Combs sheds some additional light on several of these points in his exposition of the "self-as-instrument" concept of teaching.[28] Learning, he says, is a "personal discovery of meaning by the student, a highly personal matter involving the way he sees himself and his experience. . . . Only in the degree to which he has discovered its personal meaning for him" will any item affect an individual's behavior, and "to produce changes in a person's self requires some new experience which helps him to perceive himself in a different way." This may come about through some direct provision of experience, as a consequence of perceiving an event in a new perspective, or by means of interaction following a changed perception of others.

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[24] Jerome S. Bruner, "The Act of Discovery," *Harvard Educational Review,* Vol. 31, No. 1 (Winter 1961), pp. 124–135. For a thoroughgoing discussion of virtually all aspects of discovery learning *see* Lee S. Shulman and Evan R. Keislar, eds., *Learning by Discovery: A Critical Appraisal* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966).

[25] Robert M. Gagne, *The Conditions of Learning* (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1965); David P. Ausubel, *Educational Psychology: A Cognitive View* (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1968).

[26] Quoted from the manuscript of Gagne's new book by Lee S. Shulman, "Psychology and Mathematics Education," in Edward G. Begle, ed., *Mathematics Education,* 69th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970), p. 35.

[27] Ausubel, op. cit., frontispiece.

Self-maintenance and self-enhancement are objects of continuous striving. "Everyone is always motivated to be and become as adequate as he can in the situations as he sees them." The spectator's stance is not enough. "Students in a professional program should be involved as actors. . . . They must feel a part of the process in which they are involved." Openness and creativity are closely related. The former is "learned in part from positive feeling about self which make risk-taking possible, and partly from association with open courageous persons." Thus creativity "calls for an atmosphere which encourages daring and venturing forth."

Teacher as Model. Bruner deals cogently with the teacher-as-model concept when he says:

> . . . what the teacher must be, to be an effective competence model, is a day-to-day working model with whom to interact. It is not so much that the teacher provides a model to imitate. Rather it is that the teacher can become a part of the student's internal dialogue—somebody whose respect he wants, someone whose standards he wishes to make his own. . . . The language of that interaction becomes a part of oneself, and the standards of style and clarity that one adopts for that interaction become a part of one's own standards.[29]

These, then, are some of the views put forward about learning and teaching by a wide variety of persons. They will have bearing for us, in greater or lesser degree, as we struggle with the development and teaching of an undergraduate social welfare curriculum.

INSTRUCTIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

For more than half a century educators have directed increasing attention to the determination of educational objectives and have attempted to make this a near-scientific, if not a scientific, undertaking.[30] Tyler's widely used syllabus, *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* was a major milestone along the way, and the two taxonomies edited by Bloom and Krathwohl in the late 1950's and early 1960's probed extensively into the nature of instructional goals in the cognitive and the affective domains.[31] In the past decade alone literally hundreds of articles have been written or papers presented and filmstrips and tapes made on the subject of educational objectives. Books such as that by Mager have had an almost phenomenal success.[32]

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[28] Arthur W. Combs, *The Professional Education of Teachers* (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1965).

[29] Bruner, *Toward a Theory of Instruction*, p. 125.

[30] For a brief history of this effort *see* the article by Margaret Ammons, "Objectives and Outcomes" in Robert L. Ebel, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (4th ed.; New York: Macmillan Co., 1969), pp. 908–914.

Defining Objectives

"A satisfactory instructional objective," says Popham, "must describe, without ambiguity, an observable behavior of the learner or a product which is a consequence of learner behavior." [33] Popham also proposes that it is desirable to distinguish between statements that could be used to describe learner behavior that occurs *during* an instructional sequence and those *post-instruction* behaviors toward which the instructor is aiming. Later in the same chapter he points out how most educators—despite the apparently cogent arguments in favor of precise objectives—have been "inordinately successful in avoiding them." He lists and then refutes ten reasons given by educators against stating objectives behaviorally.[34]

For Mager, "an objective is an intent communicated by a statement describing a proposed change in a learner—a statement of what the learner is to be like when he has successfully completed a learning experience." He specifies further that the terminal behavior must be identified by name, the important conditions under which behavior will be expected to occur should be described, and the criteria of acceptable performance should be set forth.[35]

Howard J. Sullivan, critical of Boom's taxonomy, takes the ten performance descriptions published by the American Association for the Advancement of Science in 1965, reduces them to six, and modifies these six somewhat.[36] It is his view that with the following six performance terms, nearly all of a learner's behavior relating to cognitive tasks in school learning can be classified. He feels they provide a framework for constructing precise objectives for most instructional tasks.[37]

1. *Identify*. The learner indicates membership or nonmembership of specified objects or events in a class when the name of the class is given.

2. *Name*. The learner supplies the correct verbal label for a referent or set of referents when the name of the referent is not given.

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[31] Ralph W. Tyler, *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950) ; Benjamin S. Bloom et al., *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Handbook I: Cognitive Domain* (New York: David McKay, 1956) ; and David R. Krathwohl et al., *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Handbook II: Affective Domain* (New York: David McKay, 1964) .

[32] Robert F. Mager, *Preparing Instructional Objectives* (Palo Alto, Calif.: Fearon Publishers, 1962) .

[33] W. James Popham, "Objectives and Instruction," in Popham et al., eds., *Instructional Objectives* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1969) , p. 35.

[34] Ibid., pp. 46–52.

[35] Mager, op. cit., pp. 3, 12.

[36] As reported in Commission on Science Education *News Letter*, No. 1 (1965) , pp. 2–4.

[37] Howard J. Sullivan, "Objectives, Evaluation and Improved Learner Achievement," in Popham et al., eds., op. cit., pp. 75–80.

3. *Describe.* The learner reports the necessary categories of object properties, events, event properties, and relationships relevant to a designated referent. The teacher should decide in advance the responses of the learner that will serve as acceptable descriptions, although he should also accept other given descriptions that he deems correct but did not anticipate.

4. *Construct.* The learner produces a product (e.g., an essay, examples of a specific concept, and so on) that meets specifications given either in class or in the test item itself.

5. *Order.* The learner arranges two or more referents in a specified order. He may be required to name or describe the referents in order himself, or a group of referents may be provided for him to order.

6. *Demonstrate.* The learner performs the behaviors essential to the accomplishments of a designated task according to preestablished or given specifications. He may be required to provide a verbal description to accompany the performance.

Gagne states:

> Perhaps the most fundamental reason of all for the central importance of defining educational objectives is that such definition makes possible the basic distinction between content and method It is the defining of objectives that brings an essential clarity into the area of curriculum design and enables both educational planners and researchers to bring their practical knowledge to bear on the matter. As an example of the kind of clarification which results from defining content as "descriptions of the expected capabilities of students," the following may be noted. Once objectives have been defined, there is no step in curriculum design that can legitimately be entitled "selecting contents" . . . . [Thus the curriculum is specified] when (1) the terminal objectives are stated; (2) the sequence of prerequisite capabilities is described; and (3) the initial capabilities assumed to be possessed by the student ar identified.[38]

All of these authors are concerned, as we have just seen, with specificity of objectives, stated unambiguously in behavioral terms for the most part, the attainment of which can be evaluated with reasonable objectivity. There are educators, however, who rigidly operationalize trivial or pedestrian behaviors and thus neglect more important instructional outcomes. Lest more educators be led into such temptation, the delightful satirization of this kind of misplaced ingenuity in the description of "The Year the Schools Began Teaching the Telephone Directory" and the spoof on the tenacity with which a mythical paleolithic educational system continues to cling to the original objectives of its "saber-tooth curriculum" in stubborn defiance of change may serve as effective deterrents! [39]

Increasingly of late serious questions have been raised about what Eisner calls the elevation or lowering of the statement "educational objectives should be stated in behavioral terms" to almost slogan status in curriculum circles. Putting the question to his readers, "Educational Objectives, Help or Hindrance?" he argues that, since the outcomes of instruction are far more numerous and complex than most educational obpectives can encompass, and that "the amount, type, and quality of learning that occurs in a classroom, especially when there is interaction among students, are only in small part predictable . . . the dynamic and complex process of instruction yields outcomes far too numerous to be specified in behavioral and content terms in advance." [40] He indicates in addition the constraints placed by various subject matters on objectives (e.g., mathematics in contrast to art or other subject matters where novel or creative responses are desired). In addition there are certain educational outcomes with respect to which judgment rather than the application of a standard is necessary.

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[38] Robert M. Gagne, "Curriculum Research and the Promotion of Learning," in Ralph W. Tyler, Robert M. Gagne, and Michael Scriven, eds., *Perspectives of Curriculum Evaluation* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1967), pp. 21–22, 23.

[39] Merrill Harmin and Sidney B. Simon, "The Year the Schools Began Teaching the Telephone Directory," Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 35, No. 3 (Summer 1965), pp. 326–331; J. Abner Peddiwell, *The Saber-Tooth Curriculum* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1939).

In a subsequent publication Eisner develops his view about educational objectives much further. He argues:

> The problem of determining how educational objectives should be stated or used is not simply a question of technique but a question of value. The differences between individuals regarding the nature and the use of educational objectives spring from differences in their conception of education; under the rug of technique lies an image of man. . . . Although clearly specified objectives provide windows, they also create walls.[41]

INSTRUCTIONAL VERSUS EXPRESSIVE OBJECTIVES

To cope with this dilemma Eisner makes a most significant distinction between what he calls *instructional* objectives and *expressive* objectives.

Instructional objectives are in assence the kind of objectives that have been dealt with earlier. They are used, as Eisner points out, in a predictive model of curriculum development, with evaluation aimed at determining the extent to which the objective has been achieved. The focus is likely to be upon "the attainment of a specific array of behaviors." He goes on to say:

> With the use of instructional objectives clarity of terminal behavior is crucial since it serves as a standard against which to appraise the effectiveness of the curriculum. In an effective curriculum using instructional objectives, the terminal behavior of the student and the objectives are isomorphic.[42]

Expressive objectives differ markedly from instructional objectives.

> "An expressive objective does not specify the behavior the student is to acquire after having engaged in one or more learning activities." By contrast, it describes an educational encounter. It identifies a situation in which [learners] are to work, a problem with which they are to cope, a task in which they are to engage; but it does not specify what from that encounter, situation, problem or task they are to learn. An expressive objective provides both the teacher and the student with an invitation to explore, defer, or focus on issues that are of peculiar interest or import to the inquirer. An expressive objective is evocative rather than prescriptive.[43]

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[40] Elliot W. Eisner, "Educational Objectives: Help or Hindrance?" *School Review*, Vol. 75, No. 3 (Autumn 1967), pp. 250–260.

[41] Elliot W. Eisner, "Instructional and Expressive Educational Objectives: Their Formulation and Use in Curriculum," in Popham et al., eds., op. cit., pp. 8, 14.

[42] Ibid., p. 15.

[43] Ibid., pp. 15–16.

Eisner goes on to say that an expressive objective is

> intended to serve as a theme around which skills and understandings learned earlier can be brought to bear, but through which those skills and understandings can be expanded, elaborated, and made idiosyncratic. With an expressive objective what is desired is not homogeneity of response among students but diversity. . . . Consequently the evaluative task in this situation is not one of applying a common standard to the products produced but one of reflecting upon what has been produced in order to reveal its uniqueness and significance. In the expressive context, the product is likely to be as much of a surprise to the maker as it is for the teacher who encounters it. . . . The critic's subject matter is the work done—he does not prescribe a blue print of its construction; the dialogue unfolds and is followed as well as led.[44]

He makes clear, however, that here is no case of an absolute either-or. Both types of objectives have their unique place in curriculum development and in the learning-teaching process. Each, however, as already indicated, requires a different kind of curriculum activity and evaluative procedure. Together, as Eisner says so well, they constitute (to modify a phrase from Whitehead) the "rhythm of curriculum." The one kind of objective emphasizes the acquisition of the known; the other, "its elaboration, modification, and, at times, the production of the utterly new." The one is more likely to focus on presented problems, reception learning, convergent thinking, and so-called guided discovery. The other looks toward discovered problems, divergent thinking, and inquiry learning. Curriculum can then be directed with an eye toward the appropriate alternation of these two kinds of objectives.

Bruner makes a similar point in a recent article:

> Skilled action requires recognizing the features of a task, its goal, and means appropriate to its attainment; a means of converting this information into appropriate action; and a means of getting feedback that compares the objective sought with the present state attained. . . . The view derives from the premise that responses are not "acquired" but are constructed or generated in consonance with an intention or objective, and a set of specifications about ways of progressing toward such an objective in such a situation. In this sense, when we learn something like a skill, it is in the very nature of the case that we master a wide variety of possible ways for attaining an objective—many ways to skin the cat. For we learn ways of constructing a myriad of responses that fit our grasp of what is appropriate to an objective.[45]

He adds that there is a very crucial matter about acquiring a skill: "the participation of the learner in setting goals is one of the few ways of making clear where the learner is trying to get to."

Beyond this there is the important aspect that Bruner calls problem-finding. Referring to scientific discovery he points out:

> Problem finding comes when one senses that there remain some dark problems about whether a . . . rule may not be consistent with another rule. . . . All of these are matters involving the raising of problems rather than their solution. They require many of the same skills and the same knowledge of underlying regularity of problem-solving. But they basically require the location of incompleteness, anomaly, trouble, inequity, and contradiction.

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[44] Ibid., pp. 16–17.

[45] Jerome S. Bruner, "The Skili of Relevance or the Relevance of Skill," *Saturday Review*, April 18, 1970, pp. 66–68, and 78–79.

Education, he therefore believes, "must concentrate more on the unknown and the speculative, using the known and the established as a basis for extra-polation." Both the "knowers" and the "seekers" have roles to play. The latter are especially active in subjects or disciplines that have a "plainly visible growing edge" where "the reward for working one's way through the known is to find a new question on the other side, formulated in a new way."

THE ROLE OF EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION

Maurice Haiting states:

> The purpose of education is to change students from a given state of experience to a desired state by means of a variety of appropriate learning experiences, some of which may be used as a basis for the evaluation of achievement. . . . Evaluation is the means we use to discover where we stand on the path between present experience and the objective.[46]

This matter of evaluation is of the highest significance with respect to the learning-teaching process. The literature on it is extensive and, as Tyler says, there has been created a

> collection of concepts, facts, generalizations, and research instruments and methods that represent many inconsistencies and contradictions because new problems, new conditions, and new assumptions are introduced without reviewing the changes they create in the relevance and logic of the older structure.[47]

In the past several years, however, two ideas about evaluation have emerged that bear heavily on our view of learning and teaching. In 1967 Scriven introduced the now widely used distinction between summative and formative evaluation.[48]

Summative or outcome evaluation is aimed at determining the worth or quality of a completed product, usually at the conclusion of a course, an academic term, or other specified period of learning. In one form it is the course grade that becomes part of the customary student record. It may also be a final summary and judgment about the quality or the effectiveness of a given project or program. It says essentially "this is the way it was," for either good or bad. It is not, as Sullivan states, "designed to produce improvements in a given set of materials or procedures," but "for the purpose of comparing the efficacy of two or more programs or in order to determine the effects of a single program." [49]

Formative evaluation, on the other hand, is an integral part of the learning-teaching process. Producing information to some extent diagnostic in nature, it is designed to provide feedback and correction at each stage of the process. Thus it may aid the course constructor or curriculum-builder to make changes while what he is doing is still fluid. By means of feedback to the instructor it may, as Bloom points out, serve as "a healthy corrective to the teaching process, since it finds difficulties early enough to do something about them as the sequence of learning-teaching develops."[50] It is also of use in midstream review of projects or programs as a whole.

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[46] Quoted by J. F. Weaver. "Evaluation and the Classroom Teacher," in Begle, ed., op. cit., p. 335.

[47] Ralph W. Tyler, "Changing Concepts of Educational Evaluation," in Tyler, Gagne, and Scriven, eds., op. cit., p. 13.

[48] Michael Scriven, "The Methodology of Evaluation," in Tyler, Gagne, and Scriven, eds., op. cit., pp. 39–83.

[49] Sullivan, op. cit., pp. 85–86. Sullivan also has a useful discussion of formative evaluation on pp. 81–85.

The most effective use of formative evaluation, however, is probably to the learner as it provides feedback to him on specific portions of the learning sequence. Bloom suggests that a useful operating procedure is to break a course or subject into smaller units of learning and then construct brief diagnostic-progress tests to "determine whether or not the student has mastered the unit and what, if anything, the student must still do to master it."[51] Such frequent formative evaluative tests "pace the learning of students and help motivate them to put forth the necessary effort at the appropriate time. The appropriate use of these tests helps to insure that each set of learning tasks is thoroughly mastered before subsequent learning tasks are started." More frequent formative tests may be needed in the earlier part of a course, both for the student who has mastered the unit, for whom the tests are reinforcing, and for the student who lacks mastery, to whom the tests reveal specific points of difficulty on which he can work. It is Bloom's opinion, however, that such formative tests should not—preferably—be assigned grades or quality points.

Bruner adds an important dimension when he says:

> Knowledge of results . . . should come at that point in a problem-solving episode when the person is comparing the results of his tryout with some criterion of what he seeks to achieve. Knowledge of results given before this point either cannot be understood or must be carried as extra freight in immediate memory. Knowledge given after this point may be too late to guide the choice of a next hypothesis or trial. . . . [To be useful it must] provide information not only as to whether or not one's particular act produced success but also whether the act is in fact leading one through the hierarchy of goals one is seeking to achieve.[52]

It would seem clear, then, that evaluation has a vital role to play at virtually every stage and in virtually every aspect of the teaching-learning process.

CONCLUSION

In a perceptive sentence Dyer sums up the position of modern man: "We have more knowledge than we know what to do with, more people than we know how to live with, more physical energy than we know how to cope with and, in all things, a faster rate of change than we know how to keep up with." [53] It is this kind of world in which today's learners learn and today's teachers teach.

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[50] Bloom, "Learning for Mastery," pp. 9–10.

[51] Benjamin S. Bloom, "Some Theoretical Issues Relating to Educational Evaluation, in Ralph W. Tyler, ed., *Educational Evaluation: New Roles, New Means,* 68th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969), pp. 47–50.

[52] Bruner, "Some Theorems on Instruction Illustrated with Reference to Mathematics," pp. 315–316.

Quite literally, we stand in 1970 at an educational crossroads and must choose which highway we shall travel. In the past we have not taken seriously enough the importance of attempting to understand what actually goes on in the learner while he is learning, to answer as critically as lies within our power the question "Education for what?", to scrutinize carefully what is really involved in the knowledge-getting process, and to think about how such answers—were we to risk asking the questions—might be translatable into action.

Yet in Bruner's words a curriculum

> reflects not only the nature of knowledge itself but also the nature of the knower and of the knowledge-getting process. . . . To instruct somone . . . is not a matter of getting him to commit results to mind. Rather it is to teach him to participate in the process that makes possible the establishment of knowledge. We teach a subject . . . to get a student to think mathematically for himself, to consider matters as a historian does, *to embody the process of knowledge-getting. Knowing is a process, not a product.*[54]

The students for whose education we are responsible today will be practicing their profession in a world that in a great many respects is already quite different from that in which most of us grew up and is likely to become even more different. The knowledge and skills needed to cope with human problems in such a world are likely therefore to undergo almost continuous change.

The best of the knowledge we can open up to our students, the highest skills we can help them to acquire during the short time they are with us, will not in themselves be enough, for, even in the time that they have to gain the knowledge and learn the skills, some of the demands on them are undergoing yet more change. The question therefore seems clear. How can students be engaged in a process of learning that will make them not just passive recipients of knowledge but active participants in the knowledge-getting process? "Knowledge as a continuing human effort is something which the learner must help to construct.[55]

Huston Smith has said: "College teaching is the difference between giving a person directions to his destination and teaching him how to read a map." [56] A Chinese saying puts the issue even more sharply:

If you give a man a fish,
He will have a single meal
If you teach him how to fish,
He will eat all his life [57]

It is that kind of learning and teaching that we are challenged to seek.

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[53] Henry S. Dyer, "The Discovery and Development of Educational Goals," *Proceedings of the 1966 Invitational Conference on Testing Problems* (Princeton. J. J.: Educational Testing Service, 1967) , p. 12.

[54] Bruner, op. cit., p. 335.

[55] Tyler, "Changing Concepts of Educational Evaluation," p. 18.

[56] Quoted by W. J. McKeachie, "The Faculty: Who They Are, What They Do," in *The College Campus in 1969: The Faculty* (Atlanta, Ga.: Southern Regional Education Board, 1969) , p. 11.

[57] Kuan-tzu, in the frontispiece to J. Servan-Schreiber, *The American Challenge* (New York: Avon Books, 1969) .

Part Three

Task Force on Extra-Classroom Learning

INTRODUCTION

Extra-classroom learning infers that significant learning may take place outside the classroom setting. It may be the most effective means for teaching certain types of skills and may provide a medium for teaching attitudes and values.

When apprenticeship was the chief means for the education of social workers "learn to do by doing" was the chief option. Today with the use of simulation and other educational techniques, educators can be selective in the use of the field experience as a means of achieving certain explicit objectives.

Extra-classroom learning can take many different forms. It may include volunteer community service, it may consist of a course-related field experience, or it may take traditional time-oriented placement of students in an agency. It may include a counseling conference, field visits, a living-learning experience, or a cross-cultural living experience in a foreign culture or in another geographic location.

The particular extra-classroom learning experiences elaborated upon in this report are: (1) Student Advising: A Process to Facilitate Planning, Integration and Use of Educational Experiences, (2) The Community Experience in Undergraduate Social Work Education, and (3) Field Experience for the Undergraduate Social Welfare Student.

STUDENT ADVISING: A PROCESS TO FACILITATE PLANNING, INTEGRATION, AND USE OF EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES

Gerald M. Gross

This paper is part of a broader effort to identify major areas of extra-classroom learning, to suggest the major educational objectives they support, and to elaborate their potential content and structure. These major areas include field instruction, use of the community as a laboratory for learning, and student advising. The purpose of this paper is to identify the objectives of student advising services, to suggest the major components of such services, and to suggest potential structures for delivering these services to students.

ASSUMPTIONS

This effort is directed by a series of assumptions about society, the learner, and the desired outcome of the educational effort. Society is simultaneously the locus of the contemporary social problems of concern to the social work profession and the context within which students learn and work. Contemporary social commentary is ripe with assessments of the impact of rapid social change, of technological innovation accompanied by an "overlive" philosophy that makes consumption a function of production needs rather than of consumer needs, and of widespread ecological and social problems that threaten man's very existence.[1] For students these aspects of contemporary life frequently lead to an alienated stance characterized by an accentuation of the present, a fragmentation of identity, a quest for positive values, and a refusal of adult roles.[2] As a context for professional activity society demands (1) lateral mobility in professional roles within social work, (2) skill in building and dismantling service systems to meet changing client needs, (3) ability to work closely with professionals from other disciplines and with indigenous workers as demanded by new syntheses of services, and (4) ability to work within and through large formal organizations and the strains these place on professional behavior.

The educational system is witnessing significant shifts in both the composition of its student population and the demands and expectations students have of their educational experiences. First, there is an increased diversity in the student population, which now includes numbers of the poor, new careerists, and older persons. Many of these students bring a maturity and depth of life experience not formerly found in the undergraduate. They demonstrate a substantially different modality of learning, characterized by emphasis on the inductive process, or learning by doing. Second, students are seeking a different relationship with faculty, best characterized as a movement from an authority-subordinate relationship to one that represents a mutual, cooperative learning venture. Third, students are increasingly seeking influence and control over curriculum and the learning experiences it provides. Fourth, students are seeking more community involvement in the roles of both learner and change agent. They look to their educational experience to equip them to be effective agents of social action and social change.[3]

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[1] *See*, for example, William M. Birenbaum, *Overlive: Poverty, Power, and The University* (New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1969); and Kenneth Keniston, "Social Change and Youth in America," *Daedalus* (Winter 1962), pp. 145–171.

[2] Kenneth Keniston, *The Uncommitted: Alienated Youth in American Society* (New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1965).

The desired outcome of undergraduate social work education is changing in response to manpower needs in the human service professions and to the changing social order. The central qualities of the changing social order. The central qualities of the changing social order have already been cited. The efforts of other task forces in this project will contribute greater specification of the educational objectives of undergraduate social work curricula that are designed to prepare baccalaureate graduates for professional roles. Several broad educational goals of undergraduate social work programs are assumed in the discussion that follows:

1. The student should develop the qualities of a rational, responsible, analytic social critic.
2. Such educational programs should enhance qualities of social inventiveness in students.
3. In an age highlighted by an unprecedented knowledge explosion, the student should develop understanding of how knowledge develops and be able to contribute to knowledge-building.
4. The student should be helped to develop the conceptual and skill base necessary for beginning professional practice.

RATIONALE AND OBJECTIVES

Student advising, as discussed here, consists of a series of noncredit, academically related activities designed to support the major educational objectives of undergraduate social work programs. These activities include what has elsewhere been defined as academic advising, but must of necessity extend beyond the traditional limited conception of appropriate advising activities if the objectives of undergraduate social work programs are to be met. This section of this paper sets forth a rationale to support an expanded conception of student advising and suggests the major objectives of such a program.

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[3] Gerald Gross, "Learning Expectations as Perceived by BA Students in Social Work," *Proceedings of the Area Conference on Undergraduate Social Work Education* (Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University School of Social Work, in press).

The objectives of undergraduate social work programs and their structural relationship to the college or university in which they are located will vary depending on the resources of the host university or community. The varied objectives and structures of these programs will combine to offer a distinctive rationale and objectives for student advising services within them. These distinctive qualities cannot all be captured here, but a central rationale and objectives are suggested. Several characteristics features of undergraduate social work programs contribute to the rationale for student advising services.

First, the emerging undergraduate programs are interdisciplinary in nature. This, coupled with increased student interest in individualized curricula, suggests the need for some device to facilitate the student's planning and integration of his educational program. Part of this task is necessarily undertaken within the professionally oriented courses, in which students must be helped to integrate knowledge from the behavioral and social sciences into working principles for effective professional action. This involves assisting the student in developing middle-range theories and conceptual tools that are transferable in practice situations. Emerging principles and practices in instructional technology should permit more effective educational processes and facilitate their integration in educational systems that by their design create the learning environments that permit students to integrate diverse learnings. Such classroom supports to a carefully planned and integrated educational program must be buttressed by an effective educational advising process. Indeed, as new teaching methods permit more individualized instruction, the faculty adviser's role becomes that of a diagnostician and prescribed helping the student to maximize his learning.

Second, students are confronted with the need to make major career and academic decisions in the context of an ever changing society whose social problems, knowledge reservoir, and professional and occupational structure are not exempted from the change process. In the presence of rapid social change and future uncertainties, students find commitment to career choices difficult. Without such commitment, decisions about educational programs and investment in the pursuit of academic excellence are hampered. Here too classroom activities can support the process of career decisionmaking. Such decisions and commitments can be further facilitated by the availability of information about career possibilities and opportunities to test out career interests through volunteer experiences, summer jobs, or part-time employment.

Third, students confront certain strains in undergraduate social work education. These strains arise from such factors as (1) the simultaneous separation from home and confrontation of the formality and bureaucracy of the educational system, (2) exposure to other students of varied backgrounds whose life-styles manifest widely divergent value systems and experiences, (3) the general stress of academic demands including studying, preparing major assignments, exams, and so on, and (4) introduction to field experiences and other learning experiences within the community. Supportive relationships with fellow students and faculty can facilitate the student's optimal use of the total educational experience. Such relationships are most likely to develop when their importance is clearly recognized by the undergraduate department and are planned for and supported by the department.

These features of undergraduate social work programs support the need for strong student advising services. They combine with the stated assumptions about society, the learner, and the desired outcome of the educational effort to suggest four major objectives of student advising services:

1. The service should assist the student in understanding the nature of career opportunities in social work and the components of education for social work on the undergraduate level.

2. It should assist the student in identifying and clarifying his own career objectives so that his educational activity can be purposeful and goal directed. This process is facilitated by the following:
   a. Providing readily accessible information on various career opportunities in social work.
   b. Structuring opportunities for students to explore various career opportunities in discussions with fellow students, faculty, and practitioners.
   c. Helping students find real-life experiences within the community to test out career interests through volunteer activity, summer or part-time employment, and the like.

3. It should assist the student in planning and integrating his total educational experience vis-a-vis his evolving personal, academic, and career interests. This involves the following:
   a Assistance in selection of required and elective courses that best support the student's individual career and educational objectives.
   b. Assistance in the location and utilization of extra-curricular activities that enrich career and educational objectives (campus activities, volunteer and social action roles in the community, part-time and summer employment).

4. It should assist the student in utilizing his educational experience by helping him deal with strains inherent in the educational process and with personal deterrents to the use of his educational opportunity. Such assistance includes:
   a. Building supports into faculty-student relationships and student-student relationships to help in dealing with strains inherent in the educational process (classroom, student organization, relationships in the faculty outside classroom).
   b. Building linkages with resources providing personal counseling and assisting students in using these resources when personal deterrents interfere with maximum use of educational opportunity.

These objectives are central to a student advising program. They will be added to and modified by specific undergraduate programs in ways consistent with their objectives, structure, and resources. The implementation of these objectives will also vary so that the visible structure of student advising services may not be the same across programs.

In an effort to stimulate thinking of possible structures to implement these objectives, potential components of a student-advising program are suggested.

POTENTIAL COMPONENTS

Five potential components of student advising services are (1) educational advising, (2) convocations, (3) student organization, (4) career and job opportunity information data bank, and (5) limited personal counseling. Special consideration is given to discussion of their linkages with other components of the educational system and to the resources to support their implementation.

EDUCATIONAL ADVISING

Educational advising is the key element in an effective student-advising program. Effective educational advising must include a combination of academic and career advising. Specification of career objectives and the selection of educational experiences are two mutually interacting processes with which each student grapples. Students will need varying degrees of help with three major tasks in the educational advisement process.

First, they will need help in establishing career goals. Specification of career goals is a dynamic, ongoing process facilitated by three student behaviors: (a) The student must obtain information about alternate career options; (b) He must find opportunities to test out career interests through volunteer experiences, summer and part-time employment, or course-related experiences in the community; (c) He must evaluate his personal interests, abilities, and values vis-a-vis alternate career routes. Effective educational advising must actively support these activities within the first two years of a student's study so that alternative choices are not limited by default. These student activities may be supported by a combination of individual and small group contacts with the the educational advisor.

Second, students will need assistance in the selection of courses appropriate to meeting degree requirements and individual educational and career goals. Programs developed in small colleges in which course options are limited may find this a simple task. Programs housed in large universities, where a myriad of course options permit flexible academic programs, must contend with the danger of haphazard selection of courses that fail to support optimally career and educational objectives.

Third, some students will seek help in dealing with personal deterrents to the process of making career and educational decisions. These deterrents frequently arise from such things as conflicts between the student's emerging goals and the expectations of his parents, age-appropriate identity conflicts of the young adult, and various other psychological factors. Some will seek help from faculty in dealing with short-term crises that interfere with maximal use of educational opportunities. Each program will have to come to grips with the appropriate role of faculty in dealing with such personal deterrents. Some guidelines are offered later.

An effective educational advisement process is dependent on its careful integration into the total educational program. Linkages must be developed with admissions, student personnel services, and academic disciplines and departments supporting the social work major. Effective student records must be developed both to facilitate the educational advisement process and to permit comprehensive letters of reference in support of students' applications for employment or admittance to graduate school. Potential staff resources for educational advising include faculty, graduate social work students (when nearby graduate schools are available), senior undergraduate students, field instructors, or other agency personnel with an interest in undergraduate social work education. Primary to the effective use of such varying staff members is an effective in-service training program that provides orientation to the purposes of such an advisement process and knowledge of the total educational program of the college or university. Student supports to the educational advisement process can be built formally or informally into the activities of the student organization when such exists.

CONVOCATIONS

The term convocation is used to designate meetings, whether of small or large groups, that are initiated by the department. Convocations may be designed to meet a variety of objectives depending on the particular interests and needs of specific undergraduate programs. When an active social work student organization exists, students will initiate group meetings to meet objectives that have high priority for them. Cooperation in the planning and integration of activities will help avoid unnecessary overlap and strengthen the total program.

Several potential purposes of department-initiated meetings include these: (1) small group meetings on major events in the students' educational progress designed to provide general information or to discuss common concerns—e.g., entry into the university, choice of a major, entry into field experiences, and job-seeking (whether summer or long-term), (2) a series of meetings bringing special speakers to the campus to discuss contemporary social problems, or a series of films with social impact organized around a central theme, (3) a careers day in which agencies recruiting graduates of undergraduate programs are invited to the campus to discuss job opportunities with students, and baccalaureate social workers are invited to share work experiences with students, (4) interdepartmental meetings to highlight special potentials or problems of interdisciplinary cooperation in professional activity.

UNDERGRADUATE SOCIAL WORK STUDENT ORGANIZATION

Active student organizations may offer students learning experiences that support and supplement the objectives of student advising services. Students will seek and indeed must have the responsibility for defining the purposes and activities of their organization. Typically such organizations develop around either or both of these focuses: (1) a focus on socialization into the profession via a host of activities or (2) a focus on social action aimed at change in their own educational environment (i.e., curriculum, housing, general university life) or at community change in relation to such concerns as civil rights, welfare rights, peace, and environmental resources. Some undergraduate social work student organizations will develop liaisons with other student groups or, when possible, with student organizations in graduate schools of social work. If it is to become a viable group, the student organization must have the support of the total educational program. It is incumbent on the undergraduate social work program to provide, through administrative channels, support to the student organization in developing linkages to decisionmaking bodies related to students' objectives and concerns. This permits the student organization to become a laboratory for learning within the university and the community.

JOB OPPORTUNITY INFORMATION

Social work educators eagerly recruit students to undergraduate programs in their zeal to be responsive to manpower shortages in the profession. They often forget that agencies are uncertain about their newfound manpower resources and unclear about how to integrate these workers meaningfully into their service delivery systems. The end result is a frustrated baccalaureate graduate who, after four years of preparation for a social work job, may find he cannot obtain one. Each school must assume responsibility for job development and for helping agencies evaluate the way in which graduates of undergraduate programs can provide services in the agencies. A natural linkage with community agencies comes through the field instruction program, which might in fact become the arena for experimental approaches to differential utilization of staff.

The social work job market has always been in a state of flux, which makes it nearly impossible to keep current records on job openings. As schools and agencies cooperate to redefine practice roles and to integrate BSWs into service delivery systems, job specifications and qualifications will be in a constant process of change. This makes it even more difficult for the graduating BSW to know where to look for jobs and makes it imperative that some basic information be gathered. One approach to this might be to develop a job information data bank that lists current positions for undergraduate social work majors, thus providing leads that students can pursue. Such a data bank might include four basic areas of information for each position: (1) job specifications, (2) job qualifications, (3) salary and benefits, and (4) names of agency representatives. Undergraduate programs might cooperate in this venture by developing data banks of positions for BSWs in regions where most of their graduates seek employment. Programs might then share this information with each other, thereby providing more comprehensive data for individual programs. Local chapters of the National Association of Social Workers, college and university placement offices, and

State employment agencies may offer services to facilitate data collection of the nature described.

LIMITED PERSONAL COUNSELING

A fifth potential component of student advising services is the provision of limited personal counseling. As suggested previously, each undergraduate program must come to grips with the question of the appropriate role of the educational adviser in helping the student deal with personal deterrents to his use of educational opportunities. The reality is that students will seek help in dealing with such personal deterrents. The program that is unprepared for that eventuality may find itself surprised. What guidelines might be suggested to guide decisions about personal counseling?

Three major variables seem likely to influence the nature of that decision:

1. The adviser's interest in, and capacity for, helping students with personal problems. An adviser clearly aware of the limitations of his interest and capacity is the student's best ally. An uninterested adviser lacking the ability to help students in this way can be of no help. The adviser with both interest and ability must be guided by his personal judgment, but should consider the problem of carrying dual roles with a student—those of counselor and of educator (his primary role).
2. The availability and accessibility of other resources on campus or in the community to help students deal with personal deterrents to the educational process. On some campuses and in some communities such resources are readily available and duplication of services is unwise. In other places services for young adults either do not exist or are not readily accessible. In such instances efforts to develop resources of this type should be supported, but requests for these services from faculty are likely to be higher in such situations.
3. The nature of the student's problem itself—whether it rests on long- or short-term difficulties—must be weighed by each program in the light of its own resources and commitment. It seems that a minimal responsibility of undergraduate social work programs is to offer time-limited support to students in dealing with temporary personal deterrents arising from upsets in their life circumstances, coupled with appropriate referrals in the case of more persistent problems.

If such services are to be implemented effectively, faculty must be supported in this endeavor. Administrators should provide formal supports by making such responsibilities a part of teaching loads for which faculty receive credit. This is necessary if faculty members' time to plan and provide such services is to be protected and rewarded. As newer instructional technology is implemented, the faculty's role will become increasingly more tutorial, expanding the advisement roles suggested in this paper.

SUMMARY

This paper has identified four major objectives for student advising services in undergraduate social work programs. The objectives combine to suggest services designed to facilitate the student's planning, integration, and utilization of his educational experiences. Each school will implement these objectives in different ways depending on its overall educational objectives and resources. Five potential components of student advising services are discussed to highlight some issues in implementation of such services and to stimulate the creative thinking of those responsible for their development.

THE COMMUNITY EXPERIENCE IN UNDERGRADUATE SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

Thomas H. Walz

It is significant in this current study of the undergraduate social welfare curriculum that something the writer has chosen to call "community experience" is given separate attention.[1] Community experience as a curriculum entity is an attempt to supplement the concept of fieldwork for the undergraduate student. Traditionally fieldwork courses were planned around a placement in an agency in which social work is practiced. Through this field placement the student was given the opportunity to observe and occasionally experience the role of the social worker. The community experience concept argues for different use of the agency experience and for richer use of the social reality that exists outside service agencies.

In social work education the curriculum has generally been differentiated into two broad categories—classroom work and fieldwork. This habit of differentiating the curriculum according to class and field suggests that the two are substantively different types of learning. Traditionally the classroom was where the student was introduced to theory and the field was where he developed skills requisite to the application of this theory. This dichotomy has in many cases produced conceptual confusion.

A preferable way of looking at this issue is to consider both class and field as simply *locations* of learning. Once it is decided what is worth knowing in social work, the subsequent step is to decide *where* the attitude, concept, or skill to be taught can best be learned and/or developed. Viewing class and field in this way should produce greater freedom of movement between the two locations and lead to a greater utilization of community experiences in undergraduate social work instruction.

Community experience may be defined negatively as everything that the traditional fieldwork placement is not. Affirmatively put, it is a type of learning encounter with social reality that goes beyond direct clinical experience in a social work role. The whole social environment—its many units, systems, and processes—must be considered as potentially relevant to the education of the undergraduate student. Such learning, it will be argued, cannot be accomplished fully in the classroom.

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[1] A variety of other terms has been used synonymously with the term community experience—field experience (as opposed to fieldwork), living-learning experience, and so on.

The choice for the student in the vast field of community experience depends on a judgment as to what is worth knowing or experiencing. The range of such experiences could extend from attending an urban coalition meeting to living with a low income family as a "foster boarder." The key curriculum problem is to link learning to living appropriately in the most educational way for the student and for the optimal achievement of curriculum objectives.

PRINCIPLES

Several terms have been used interchangeably to describe extra-classroom learning. The "living-learning" concept is used to denote something more than a form of experiential learning. In addition, it is associated with a specific set of principles governing its implementation. A review of these principles should be of interest: [2]

1. *The community of learners.* Living-learning experiences are generally organized around a small group of learners. The building of a community of learners is one of the intended by-products of living-learning programs as well as one of the key tools in increasing opportunities for students to learn from one another.

2. *Experiential learning.* By this principle learners are required to become primary data collectors and efforts are made to maximize all opportunities for direct personal learning encounters and experience outside the classroom.

3. *Mutuality of the teaching-learning process.* This principle articulates a new role relationship between student and instructor, one less hierarchical than the traditional model. It increases the student's responsibility for learning and places greater emphasis on the teacher as facilitator rather than expert.

4. *Broadening the learning environment.* This principle covers two points—expansion of the radius of the learning environment to the world and increase in the mix of learners by including community residents, faculty members, and others in the learning experience.

5. *The learner as curriculum-builder.* This principle requires that each learner or group of learners engage in the design as well as the conduct of their living-learning activities. The process of designing a living-learning experience is felt to be vital to the total learning generated by that experience.

6. *The academic-experiential continuum.* This principle affirms that a living-learning approach to higher education is more than "experience as education." It suggests that a balanced investment of intellect and emotion (both cognitive and affective) is needed for total learning and that traditional academic approaches to learning (reading, library research, lectures) are to be used in combination with experience.

7. *Broadening the learner feedback/evaluation system.* This princi-

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[2] Unpublishd committee report, Living-Learning Center Design Committee, University of Minnesota, January 1969, p. 3.

ple suggests both a broader range and a different kind of educational feedback in lieu of traditional evaluative procedures. A learner's ideas should be "reviewed" by more than the teacher and should include all those who have some expertise about the community content under investigation. Feedback is to be considered a tool of learning and growth, not a vehicle for grading.

From these broad educational principles it is apparent that community experience can be more than an expansion of the traditional field placement program. The use of community experience offers a new philosophy and method of higher education.

TYPES OF LEARNING

The community experience concept potentially offers a number of types of learning. Three different types can be readily identified:

1. Direct knowledge (largely informational) about some aspect of the social reality.
2. Sensory understanding (leading to a fuller comprehension) of the conceptual base of social work practice and theory.
3. Ego growth and development.

The first of these, increased informational control over some part of the social reality, is self evident. The second and third types, however, require some further explication. Frequently in classroom teaching concepts are used for which the student has no empirical referent. Consequently certain abstractions are meaningless to the students because they lack an important sensory dimension drawn from their own experience. An example might be a requirement for a paper on the culture of poverty based solely on library research. Assuming limited life experience, the student's treatment of the subject matter would be dependent on secondary operational definitions of key concepts as well as the author's own analysis. Given opportunity to gain some firsthand experience with a different subculture, and some sensory experience with poverty (e.g., smell, texture, and so on), the student's treatment of the culture of poverty would take on new meaning. His involvement would become more total. His responses would be visceral as well as cognitive.

The boredom about which students in undergraduate programs often complain can hardly be a function of the content. The subject matter of social work is unquestionably some of the most fascinating and significant raw material of life. If boredom exists it has to be a result of the colorless abstractions into which teachers and scholars convert this raw material. It should be apparent that appropriate community experiences would not only increase comprehension, but would also heighten the student's interest in and motivation with respect to the subject matter.

The third type of learning, that which results in ego development, requires careful analysis. In a recent report by a blue-ribbon committee on higher education, colleges and universities were reminded of their responsibility to meet the developmental as well as intellectual needs of college students. According to the committee report, "the argument for developmental education is, in the last analysis, that even technicians cannot be trained unless it is recognized that they are something more than functionaries . . . ."[3] Community experiences afford opportunities for ego development far beyond what can be realized within the classroom. The white middle-class undergraduate who spends a term as a foster boarder in the home of a family of black welfare recipients has an experience that must inevitably have a deep effect on his personality; likewise, a student who spends a number of evenings in the waiting area of a general hospital's emergency room experiences some of the social tragedies in the world around him of which he may never have been aware. The range and depth of community experiences are such that almost any level of intensity of experience can be achieved. It is rare when such experiences do not attack the root of the student's self—his attitudes, values, and convictions.

It is necessary to recognize that in the use of community experience in higher education the exact dosage cannot be precisely controlled. Reality governs itself in rather absolute terms. As a consequence the use of community experience in teaching produces a high-risk/high-gain situation. However, if students are to be trained who will take risks and who will not retreat from tough situations, teachers must also be ready to risk exposing students to such hazards. Social work educators must necessarily be able to make appropriate educational diagnoses regarding students' developmental needs as well as their intellectual needs. They must be able to assist students in developing an appropriate design for community experience content.

Students are fortunately not fragile creatures. They have a youthful resilience. During undergraduate years students tend to be highly experimental and have great capacity for growth. They have a strong need to find meaning in their activities and to develop out of their experience a strong social philosophy. Community experience has proved that it can meet these critical needs of the young learner.

DESIRABLE ATTRIBUTES

The use of community experiences, even more than other aspects of the curriculum, requires that the teacher have a clear understanding of his educational objectives, including the kind of student he is trying to prepare. It is necessary to identify not only what we want the student to know, but also what we want him to be. In a time of great change, this is not an easy question for the educator to answer. Most educators, however, would agree that the following attributes are desirable in the undergraduate social work student:

1. **Willingness to take risks.**
2. **Commitment to social betterment.**
3. **Cross-cultural versatility.**
4. **Political awareness and responsibility.**
5. **Strong empathetic capacity.**
6. **Healthy self-concept, self-confidence.**
7. **Independence and self-reliance.**
8. **Creativity, social imagination.**
9. **Thorough knowledge of subject matter.**

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[3] *Student in Higher Education*, Report of the Committee on Higher Education (Hagen Foundation, 1969), p. 58.

It is essentially these attributes that best can be affected through appropriate community experiences. For example, one might help a student develop a study of the effects of housing on behavior of residents of different areas of a city or even different regional areas. If carefully designed, the student's personal research could contribute to the development of several of the above-mentioned attributes: the regional nature of the study contributes to independence and individual coping responsibilities, personal investigation of housing conditions contributes to empathic understanding of people and the significance of their environment of their lives, and so on. It is doubtful that an equal investment of time in library research on housing would produce similar results.

Sequence, Continuity, and Integration

Even though the Tylerian principles of sequence, continuity, and integration have sometimes been overdrawn in social work education, they are applicable to the community experience component of the curriculum. With the world as a classroom it is essential that educators be selective and build a strong rationale for their selectivity.

A clear distinction between several types of learning previously discussed is helpful in developing the design of community experiences, enhancing the developmental needs of the student, and providing a sensory definition to the basic concepts on which the curriculum has been built. Regarding the latter, the type and timing of specific field experiences is determined by the order of the concepts to be taught. If, for example, the sequence or major contains a course on social welfare as a social institution, an initial concept of the course might center on the breadth of the definition of social welfare. A variety of community experiences could be designed to provide students with a sensory understanding of this concept. Students could, for example, explore the public library's role as a drop-in center for the lonely and transient in society; they could attend a fundamentalist church and study its role in meeting the social welfare needs of its members; they could study firsthand the contributions of mutual aid organizations such as AFDC Mothers' Leagues, Alcoholics Anonymous; and so forth. By means of these community experiences the breadth of social welfare and the elusiveness of a definition of it as an institution could be perceived more accurately.

A second key concept in such a course might deal with the relationship of community attitudes and values to public social welfare policies. Through the community experience model students could conduct a community attitudes survey on welfare issues to determine whether current policies actually reflect the feelings and attitudes of the political majority in a society. Various communications problems that arise because of the pluralistic nature of society could be studied concurrently. Students might also participate in existing community organizations and attend meetings that are growing out of specific positions held by various groups on such issues.

A third key concept in the course might deal with the condition of "upside-down welfarism." Here, students could analyze agency practices regarding who is served and who is referred. They could review the quality of public schools as related to income levels of areas in which the schools are located, or they could conduct an ex post facto study of who benefited from a local urban renewal program. The range of such community investigations is virtually unlimited.

In each instance cited, an appropriate community experience is identified to illustrate in sensory terms the meaning and significance of a critical concept. The community experience is developed to fit a specific concept as it appears on the teaching plan. Obviously not all concepts introduced require an experiential component. For those that do, however, it is essential that students be provided with the time and opportunity to explore the empirical referents of these concepts.

It should be added that while sequence and continuity present no major problems in implementing these community experiences, the matter of integration does. In the case of community experience content more is involved than a strictly cognitive process of pulling pieces together into some conceptual whole; it is also necessary to help the student integrate the affective (sensory) with the cognitive in such a way that full intellectual comprehension is achieved and the maximum payoff in personal growth realized. There is no specific formula for doing this, but an awareness of both considerations is a vital first step.

When the developmental needs of the student are brought into question, the sequence and continuity and integration questions present the same problems as previously mentioned. The integration problem is the most difficult to implement and is a step that requires special faculty intervention. As community experiences are built into the curriculum, faculty members bear considerable responsibility for the effects they may have on the student. Students obviously come from widely differing backgrounds with differing levels of emotional stability. While most can survive and actually thrive on intense community experiences, maximum personal development requires careful faculty assessment of student readiness to make use of these experiences.

Parameters for Community Experience

With the field of social work in such a state of flux, it would be extremely difficult to draw limits of those community experiences that are appropriate and relevant for undergraduate students and those that are not. Student interest, the currency of community issues, and the availability of resources in the community all influence the nature of the experiences to be exploited. Ultimately it is the curriculum objectives and student readiness that ought to define these limits.

A careful look at the issues of today coupled with those on the horizon suggest some priorities in providing community experience opportunities:

1. *Intergroup relations.* Intergroup communications, human relations, and civil rights will remain critical problems for many years. Students seeking an effective role in increasing harmony and understanding between conflicting groups will have to develop a cross-cultural communication capability of far greater depth than they currently possess.

"Overdeveloped" middle-class college students must be helped to function comfortably and effectively outside middle-class environments. Experiences like the foster boarder program and other opportunities for sustained personal contact will be required. New types of faculty teaching assistants (e.g., indigenous community residents) representing a wide range of class, ethnic, and age backgrounds will in all probability be needed as supplementary instructors if this important educational goal is to be achieved.

2. *Cross-cultural experiences.* Another form of cross-cultural experience becoming increasingly important to a social work program is an overseas experience. In the face of a rapidly shrinking world, international social welfare issues threaten to overshadow even the highest priority domestic social concerns. A sensory understanding of the "Third World" may be the most essential knowledge area for a college student during the next 30 years. The polarization of the poor nations of the world vis-a-vis the rich nations engenders a set of problems that could shatter any hope for world peace in the remainder of the 20th century. Cross-cultural experiences help the student develop new comparative understanding about himself and society and enhance his ability to be more responsibly critical of himself and his institutions.

3. *Politicization of students.* The need for politicizing the social work student suggests another critical area for community experience. Students need increased awareness of and experience with different levels of the political process in order to deal effectively with the range of problems that will affect the quality of life in society. Community experiences in this area could range from an opportunity to serve as a page for a city council member to the chance to participate as an intern on a social agency board. A closer awareness and appreciation of the politicization of poor and minority groups would also be helpful. Politicizing students necessarily requires more than academic coursework in political science.

4. *Organizational change.* Another important development has been the increased role and significance of social welfare bureaucracies. The significance of the social worker as service provider is gradually being overshadowed by the importance of the health of the organization within which he works. The social worker's role as a change agent increasingly may need to be defined as that of a change agent of *organizations,* including his own, rather than as a direct intervener in clients' lives. Students must, in effect, develop an improved understanding of organizational dynamics and their integral change processes. Carefully designed experiences can assist students in identifying organizational strengths and weaknesses and in piloting model changes within them. The possibilities for community experiences in this area are unlimited, even in rural areas where fewer large organizations exist. On interesting experiment recently developed at some universities is to assist students in incorporating their own "service agency." Students function as a board of directors with opportunities to study decisionmaking and communication processes that are central parts of organizational life. The traditional social work agency can become a suitable setting for this type

of community experience if use of the setting is somewhat differently planned.

5. *Consumer role.* A final priority area for the use of community experiences in undergraduate social welfare programs would be to stress "experiencing" the client's role. It can be assumed that students will have many opportunities to study the roles of social workers in their subsequent academic and professional lives. Opportunities to view social needs and social services from the client's perspective are less readily available. Since the key to service development and delivery is an understanding of client need and perception, these opportunities must be made available. Recently one of the writer's students worked out a plan to spend the summer living and working with a migrant family. Others have tried their hand at day labor, living as itinerant workers. Students have arranged to spend a day with a high school dropout analyzing the way he normally spends his time. A small college in the area has developed a program whereby students can live in a mental hospital (on the admissions ward) as friendly visitors. If these suggestions appear to demand too much of students, an equally wide range of less intense experiences could be designed.

This analysis of priority areas for community experiences which would provide essential learning skims only the surface of the potential of community experience as an integral part of the curriculum. Even in regions with limited resources, a host of "other than" fieldwork opportunities exist. It must be remembered that students are highly mobile and that the world as a classroom is increasingly at their disposal.

BUILDING AN INFRASTRUCTURE

Many educators will immediately recognize that some of the concepts suggested here could not readily be introduced in their schools because of a variety of institutional constraints. Traditionally many liberal arts colleges and faculties are suspicious of experiential types of learning. Others simply do not recognize their responsibility to address themselves to the developmental needs of their adolescent learners.

The building of a program that makes maximum use of community experiences first requires a thorough defense of community experiences as not only legitimate but essential in higher education. If students are to deal with conceptual learning they must necessarily "know" the concept. To know a concept goes well beyond providing it with a verbal definition. The student must also be able to understand the real world phenomena out of which the concept has been abstracted. Obviously not all abstractions require or could be provided with real world referents.

Beyond this it is essential to free the curriculum, to loosen up crediting procedures and traditional classroom/course restraints. Students ought to study problems, issues, and ideas—not courses. They need to be freed (with respect to both time and credits) to explore these educational questions in locations that most efficiently and effectively produce genuine knowledge and understanding.

An adequate use of the community requires thorough faculty knowledge and understanding of the community as a laboratory. Faculty contacts in the community are necessary. Beachheads or living-learning centers may need to be established beyond the campus in order appropriately to move large numbers of students through community experiences. In this sense faculty members need increasingly to become curriculum planners and resource developers rather than traditional teacher-experts.

A broader base of faculty is often needed in community-based higher education. A teaching team that includes community resource persons as well as established faculty members may be required to gain entry to the community and reveal the many facets of the reality under study. Few universities have yet developed higher educational teaching teams.

Finally, students are often unprepared to assume responsibility for developing their own off-campus study projects; they are unwilling to make the personal investment or take the risks required in living-learning experiences. Having adapted to a passive stance in learning, they often resist the community experience model. Faculty must recognize this initial response and provide the necessary support and guidance. The most important payoff for the student is learning how to learn through a method that will have lifelong benefits.

SUMMARY

Community experience should be viewed as an extension of and supplement to fieldwork experience, not as its substitute. It offers the means to ensure a greater depth in conceptual learning as well as greater opportunity for personal growth. Like any other part of the curriculum it must be carefully designed and equally well supervised. Unquestionably it makes new and greater demands on faculty and frequently thrusts them into areas beyond their immediate expertise. This provides new opportunities for faculty to become colearners. Community experience opens up and makes more flexible and more participatory the social work educational process. Students must necessarily shift from a passive learner role to an active inquirer role.

While most students have mastered the techniques of learning in the classroom, they have all too often developed learning strategies that require only minimal investments (intellectually and emotionally) and that do not produce real understanding and comprehension. Many of the eager self-motivated students are already moving beyond the classroom to the community. Those who are comfortable with their avoidance of the difficult realities of our time are fully aware of their retreat and sense that they will be ill prepared to assume the responsibilities of citizen and worker after four years of college. Many look toward graduate school to do this for them. For the most part, however, it has been the writer's experience that students welcome gentle prodding and, once they find their "sea legs" in the community, become turned on to this mode of learning and learn a great deal more than from conventional approaches to higher education.

FIELD EXPERIENCE FOR THE UNDERGRADUATE SOCIAL WELFARE STUDENT

Margaret B. Matson

Two closely related recent events in education and practice require a reexamination of field experience for the undergraduate social welfare student. First, the membership requirements of the Council on Social Work Education now stipulate that field experience must be available within the curriculum[1] offered by the college or university. Schools wishing to qualify for constituent membership will soon be subjected to a more specific requirement—that they may certify only "students who have completed appropriate educationally directed field experience with direct engagement in service activities, which is an integral part of the program." The CSWE has also recognized the bachelor's degree as the first practice degree, thus highlighting the relationship between undergraduate education and beginning social work employment that was documented in the Merle study.[2]

Second, the action of the National Association of Social Workers in establishing a regular membership category for "persons holding a bachelor's degree with an undergraduate sequence in social work that meets criteria established by the Council on Social Work Education" has focused attention on questions of quality and consistency.[3]

Individually and collectively, undergraduate educators have for many years insisted that their graduates were being prepared for practice and have deplored the failure of employing agencies, national associations, and merit systems to give recognition to the specialized education graduates brought to entry-level positions in social work. Even the most ardent advocate of undergraduate social work education, however, has had to acknowledge the tremendous variation in course offerings, instructional patterns, and field experience programs among the hundreds of educational institutions claiming to offer social welfare content in the undergraduate program. With the advent of the 1970's, the new look symbolized by the Syracuse University curriculum-building workshop is imperative; education, practice, employing agencies, and national associations all must face the implications of the new developments outlined.

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[1] A statement of requirements appears in *Colleges and Universities Offering Undergraduate Courses with Social Welfare Content* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, July 1969).

[2] Sherman Merle, *Survey of Undergraduate Programs in Social Welfare: Programs, Faculty, Students* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1967)

[3] *NASW News*, Vol. 15, No. 2 (January 1970) p. 1. This provision became effective April 1, 1970. "Pending development by the Council on Social Work Education of specific qualitative criteria for undergraduate programs preparing for beginning social work practice (expected by the end of 1970) the NASW board has authorized a blanketing-in period ending June 30, 1970. During that time eligibility shall consist of a baccalaureate degree from any accredited college or university, including completion of a social work program. Applicants will be asked to list pertinent courses they completed. When CSWE specifies qualitative criteria in late 1970, the NASW board will decide how to apply them in determining eligibility for NASW." *NASW News*, Vol. 15, No. 3 (March 1970), pp. 1 and 3.

Field experience is of special significance in this context, providing as it does a bridge between the statuses of student and worker. An educationally focused agency placement provides an opportunity for the student to relate classroom learning to a practice setting; to learn, use, and test skills; and to test himself and his commitment to social work attitudes and values.[4] Carefully planned and well-supervised field experience provides for the acquisition of knowledge about agency and community within the context of individual and societal needs; it deepens awareness of concepts from basic disciplines and social welfare courses; it provides opportunity for the use of knowledge about self, social functioning, client-worker systems, and institutional structure. In brief, field experience is concerned with preparation for practice. Although the entire curriculum contributes to this preparation, it is in the field experience that student, school, and agency face most directly the challenge and opportunity of education for the assumption of professional responsibilities.

The bridging function of field experience is clearly recognized by students, whose daily logs, written reports, and comments in seminars reflect their assignments of the demands of practice and their own adequacies and inadequacies in meeting these demands. Their satisfaction with field placement is directly correlated with the degree to which it introduces them to the world of work. From the standpoint of the student, the college or university, the employing agency, and the profession in general, the development of soundly based, educationally focused field experience programs is imperative. This paper attempts to identify some of the linkages between field experience and other aspects of the curriculum, its relationship to new developments in education, and its relationship to practice. Specific questions are raised about changes in field experience patterns necessitated by current recognition of the bachelor's degree as the first practice degree. Next, attention is given to specific aspects of field learning: skills, social work tasks, social work values, and self-knowledge. Finally, faculty responsibility in field experience is discussed in relationship to students, agencies, and the university or college.

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[4] "Agency" in the context of this paper is used in the broad sense of "agency, institution, or service." It is a shorthand designation covering a multiplicity of settings, both traditional and innovative.

DEFINITION

Field experience has been defined as "the educational assignment of undergraduate students to a social welfare agency for a designated period of time throughout a semester." [5] As indicated in the opening paragraph of this paper, direct engagement in the agency's service activities is specified as a necessary component of this experience if schools are to qualify for constituent (rather than associate) membership in CSWE after July 1, 1971. A further stipulation is that this experience must be "an integral part of the program" in social welfare.

In the opinion of the writer, both of these provisions should be included in the definition on an educationally sound field program, regardless of membership categories. A revised definition for the purposes of this paper is as follows:

> An integral part of a school's social welfare program, field experience provides for the educational assignment of undergraduate students for a designated period of time throughout a semester or term for direct engagement in the service activities of a social welfare agency, service, or institution.

PATTERNS OF PLACEMENT[6]

Most undergraduate field experience plans provide for a limited time in placement (6 to 8 hours per week for one or two semesters) with a concurrent seminar for 1 or 2 hours per week. A few colleges and universities offer block placements of varying time periods (6 to 10 weeks, for example), either in the summer or in the regular school year. Still fewer colleges and universities offer block placements with a seminar.

Which of these patterns is chosen depends on a variety of factors: educational philosophy; institutional policies and practices; school location; agency interest, willingness, and ability to cooperate; transportation; availability of faculty and agency field instructors; and so on. Demands of the 1970s growing out of the CSWE and NASW positions will require colleges and universities to reexamine their field experience patterns in the light of practice requirements. Almost categorically one can predict that colleges and universities will need to allocate more resources to field experience planning, operation, and instruction than they have committed in the past.

Whether the time spent by students in placement will need to be increased is a question to which schools and agencies must give serious attention. The question often asked is "How many hours per week should the student spend in placement?" A more meaningful question is "Given the objectives of the field experience course, what number of hours per week for how many weeks will need to be devoted to what sorts of learning experiences?"

Although field experience is discussed here under the rubric of "extra-classroom learning," it is an integral part of the total social welfare curriculum. Location *outside* the classroom does not imply a separate, unrelated set of experiences divorced from the educational content learned *inside* the classroom. The total program is viewed as a series of learning opportunities designed to produce an individual qualified to take up a beginning practice position following graduation. Any college or university that seriously undertakes to educate such an individual will need to utilize a variety of interrelated learning experiences, one form of which is learning in a practice setting. It is this emphasis on linkage between learning in different locations and through various media that justifies the label "educationally focused field experience." If preparation for practice is a genuine objective of undergraduate education and not simply a byproduct, then field experience must be structured to facilitate emergence of the beginning worker.

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[5] *Undergraduate Programs in Social Welfare* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1967), p. 14.

[6] Data on patterns of field experience in 29 colleges and universities are contained in a forthcoming report of a study by Kristen Wenzel, National Pilot Survey of College Graduates with Major in Social Welfare Earned Between 1967 and 1969" (New York: to be published by the Council on Social Work Education).

COMPATIBILITY WITH NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATION

Any aspect of curriculum-building must take into account certain trends in higher education or run the risk of speedy obsolescence. In the case of field experience the "fit" is good and no Procrustean effort is required. Among the trends in higher education that seem significant for social welfare education the following can be identified:

> An increased emphasis on independent study, credit by examination, and other plans for individualized learning.
>
> Greater involvement of students in decision-making: curriculum change, course selection, evaluation of teaching.
>
> Attempts to utilize the various life experiences a student brings to the learning situation: volunteer work, employment, community service, marriage, military service, VISTA, Peace Corps.
>
> An increased emphasis on interdisciplinary approaches and attempts to combine fields of knowledge.

With all these, field experience is quite compatible. A specific comment should probably be made about interdisciplinary approaches. This is especially significant in social welfare education, in which contributions from many fields—sociology, psychology, political science, economics, child development, the humanities—are essential to a balanced program. In field experience students become aware of the usefulness of knowledge about law, health, and teaching and the necessity for working with professionals in these and similar areas if major problem-solving efforts are to succeed.

Inherent in the field experience is an opportunity for individualized learning to an extent generally impossible in the classroom. The person functions in many situations as the only student; even when he is in a student unit, his assignments are individualized, as in his conference time with the agency field instructor.[7] For many students this serves the function of challenging them as individuals unprotected by the impersonality of a large university or categorized by past performance in classroom settings in a small college. They are thereby free to develop a sense of identity in a way not possible in the traditional classroom learning situation.

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[7] The designation "agency supervisor" is frequently used to indicate the agency person who has responsibility for guiding the student's learning and evaluating his progress. This usage is somewhat confusing, however, because the supervisor's role vis-a-vis employed workers is different from his role vis-a-vis students. The use of "agency field instructor" in this paper is an attempt to identify and emphasize the *teaching* role assumed by an agency representative to whom students are assigned.

RELATIONSHIP TO PRACTICE

It is the thesis of this presentation that field experience is the bridge between baccalaureate education and practice, between student status and worker status. This is not to say that the field student is an apprentice, learning traditional, time-honored ways of performance without questioning their rationale or necessity. It is not to say that curriculum, including field experience, should be dictated by current job descriptions or agency practices. For the university or college to adopt such a subservient role would be to abrogate its responsibility. Preparation of students for changing roles in social work and the related helping professions, rather than emphasis on the status quo, must be the mark of an effective social welfare program.

In the field experience the student frequently begins with awareness of himself as a marginal man—neither student (in the traditional classroom sense) nor worker, yet expected to perform aspects of both roles. Agencies providing field placements become aware of the knowledge base, motivation, concerns, and performance skills of undergraduate students and use this knowledge in attempting to define roles of workers with various levels of education.

The bridging function, then, requires examination of field experience within the context of the total social welfare program of a college or university professing to educate for baccalaureate-level positions. Analysis of contemporary trends in higher education reveals that field experience is compatible with the emphasis on independent study and interdisciplinary approaches to learning, with involvement and participation of students, and with the individualization of learning experiences. The opportunity exists, then, to develop field experience programs in today's educational systems that will enrich both education and practice.

WHAT CHANGES ARE NEEDED?

Significant changes in content, duration, and organization of field experience will be required of most colleges and universities presently offering field experience programs. With a stated goal of preparing students for practice, the undergraduate social welfare program requires a field experience geared to that goal rather than to more generally defined objectives.

Content

Simply stated, observation and learning about agency and profession are appropriate freshman-sophomore activities to be developed through a variety of extra-classroom activities (field trips, volunteer experience, summer jobs, and the like). The actual field experience at the junior and senior levels must provide for student participation in the agency's service delivery system; professional roles and interventive skills will be taught and learned through placement. An important assumption underlying this is that the student brings to the field the analytical skill that has previously been developed in the classroom—the ability to look critically at a set of facts or circumstances, to weigh alternatives, and to make decisions.

Provision must be made for learning the following:

1. *Interventive skills.* In the broadest term, the acquisition of interventive skills has high priority in field placement. How to give help, how to use oneself appropriately in a professional role, how to interact effectively with others in a helping relationship—these are the questions to which field instructor and student address themselves.

Observation, information collection, interviewing, use of resource files, and recording are examples of the kinds of skills needed in a wide variety of settings. All of these may have been learned previously, to a certain extent, in the classroom or elsewhere. For example, basic recording skills may have been learned in English classes, interviewing may have been simulated in a social welfare class or studied through films.

In the field experience, however, learning of skills is tied to the purposes of an activity: The student *observes* a child in a day care center to obtain information needed by the agency in planning for the child. The student *interviews* persons applying for public housing and *collects information* needed in the evaluation of their application. The student *records* such information for use by are agency.

Note that learning of skills is not restricted to learning how to function within the bureaucratic context of a given agency or service, for example, public assistance or corrections. A limited emphasis of this type is appropriately a part of inservice training rather than baccalaureate education. Basic or generic skills and techniques common to many employment situations are the focus of teaching and learning in field experience.

2. *Tasks performed by social workers.* Obviously the student will not perform all the tasks regularly carried by workers in a given setting. Nevertheless, he should have an opportunity to learn about the range of functions performed and to assume tasks of graduated complexity as the field placement progresses. In the early stages of placement the student can accompany workers on home visits and to interagency conferences; he can visit other agencies to obtain information needed in providing service to clients. Films, role-playing situations, one-way screens, recorded interviews, and the like are frequently used to facilitate classroom learning. They are also appropriate in certain aspects of field learning, but they should not be substituted for actual participation in the work of the agency.

A guiding question should be: What kinds of learning can *best* take place in the agency, and what kinds in the classroom? To use either location effectively, a plan must be formulated that first identifies concepts, skills, and tasks to be learned and then allocates them between classroom and field, recognizing that the separation cannot and should not be total. In such a process the field experience will certainly be the locale for the more intensive learning of task-oriented material and social work methods.

Analysis of the complex nature of social work practice can be built into the field experience along the lines suggested by the Bisno model.[8] The student who is alerted to functional analysis of this type will emerge with a clearer concept of social work practice than one whose frame of reference is limited to an imprecisely defined "casework," "group work," or "community organization" function.

3. *Social work values.* For most students field experience provides the first actual exposure to the social work values studied in texts and discussed in class. Both consistencies and inconsistencies between agency practice and stated values will be apparent. The puzzled student will seek to discover the relationship between the profession's code of ethics and workers' behavior. He will become aware of the conflict between social work values and community values. Both agency and college field instructors will need to help the thoughtful student sort out his own reactions to a variety of contradictory and challenging messages that reach him in his field experience.

Preliminary socialization into the profession occurs as the student "tries on" the role of social worker, not only in terms of skill- and task-oriented learning, but in the analysis of social work values. His readiness for a beginning position is enhanced by the opportunity to test, in a preliminary fashion, his own acceptance of the social work world—both the reality and the ideal.

4. *Self-knowledge.* Closely related is the increase in self-awareness as the student is confronted with situations that challenge his own attitudes and values. How does he *really* feel about poor people, unmarried mothers, welfare rights organizations, Black Power? How effective is he in relating to people with life experiences quite different from his own? Can he operate within the limits set by agency policy, budget, and procedures and by the political, economic, and social factors of the community as they impinge on the agency's program? Must he accept the inevitable slowness to change situations that in his definition cry out for immediate solution? What would increase his effectiveness as a change agent? What knowledge and skills does he lack? Is he willing to work sufficiently hard to acquire them? Does a social work career appear to offer the challenge and opportunity he seeks?

At the present time most baccalaureate-level workers enter agencies without prior exposure to their programs, policies, and problems and with only a vague understanding of social work values. They have majored in a variety of subjects and seek social work employment for myriad reasons. Acquisition of skills, competence in performing tasks, and knowledge about the profession's values and about themselves begin on the job. The student in a program that prepares for social welfare practice has acquired through field placement at least a beginning understanding of the demands imposed by the profession. One consequence is more soundly based career choices, with consequent increased personal satisfaction. The "bridge" ensures not only better education, but better practice.

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[8] Herbert Bisno, "A Theoretical Framework for Teaching Social Work Methods and Skills, with Particular Reference to Undergraduate Social Welfare Education," *Journal of Education for Social Work*, Vol. 5, No. 2 pp. 5–30.

5. *Substantive knowledge.* A body of substantive knowledge is an essential component of field experience. This knowledge is obviously not uniform; for example, placement in a Model Cities program will probably add more to the student's knowledge of urban sociology, local government, and intergroup tensions than would placement in a state hospital for the mentally ill. A field experience in a residential setting for the elderly would yield an understanding of social isolation, the significance of changes in social roles over a period of time, and Old-Age, Survivors' and Disability Insurance and Old Age Assistance programs. Placement in a child welfare agency would undoubtedly increase the student's knowledge in such disparate areas as the socialization process, legal definitions of neglect and abuse, types of institutions available for children with special needs, and theories of child development.

The lack of uniformity should not be exaggerated, however, for similarities in the body of substantive knowledge can easily be identified. Social legislation, utilization of the network of community services, agency interrelationships, bureaucratic structure and functioning, and individual reactions to stress are among the many threads of commonality that are likely to emerge for seminar discussions in groups of students placed in widely divergent settings. Students frequently say, "The textbooks come alive," as they build on knowledge previously acquired in courses in social problems, delinquency, abnormal psychology, and social welfare. Acquisition of this substantive knowledge in the field setting has the latent consequence of "justifying" the classroom experience. The field experience tends to emphasize the relevance (to use the current phrase) of study that has previously been undertaken largely for the sake of passing examinations.

Duration

Informal reports indicate that field experience for undergraduate social welfare students is typically scheduled for 6 to 8 hours per week for one semester. Under these conditions participation in the service functions of the agency is necessarily limited. Discontinuity is built into the plan, and a certain amount of "starting all over again" is likely to be required each week. Agencies vary in their ability to offer meaningful contact with clients in the limited time students are scheduled, and it is difficult for students to become acquainted with more than a small portion of the total agency program. Increasingly agencies are saying that their expenditure of staff time for planning and operating these limited placements is not justified in terms of benefits to either students or agency.

Colleges and universities, on the other hand, have often failed to take a fresh, critical look at alternative arrangements that would extend the field experience. Hemmed in by a narrow view of "pure" learning in the restricted liberal arts tradition, unclear about what is "vocational" and what is liberalizing, and handicapped by limited faculty and budget, it is easier for the school to continue a restricted field program than to structure one in a new mold.

Alternatives must be found, however, if field experience is to play its rightful role in bridging the gap between student status and worker status. Several possibilities suggest themselves. Use of the summer for a block field experience has been adopted by a number of institutions. Placements are sometimes arranged through National Commission for Careers in Social Work, regional associations such as the Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education, state departments of public welfare, and the like. In other cases colleges and universities have developed relationships with agencies that use students as case aides or group leaders, in social work camps, and programs such as Upward Bound and Head Start, through which the educational component required by the college can be built into a summer work experience.

Extending the duration of field experience is also possible through changing students' schedules so that a concentration of social welfare content can be offered in one quarter or semester, thus minimizing scheduling conflicts. If, for example, field experience is required for 3 full days per week and the students' other work for that academic period is in social welfare courses, scheduling is less complicated than if students' schedules are varied and must accommodate science laboratories, physical education periods, and the whole gamut of college offerings. In some colleges student teaching is offered for half a semester with required education courses scheduled in the other half; students who had their classroom work in the first half of the semester replace those returning from student teaching assignments, who in turn enter the half-term classroom courses. A similar arrangement for social welfare students would seem feasible in many institutions.

One obstacle to extending the duration of field experience is the limited amount of credit given for it. The student who receives only 3 semester hours' credit for a full day each week in the agency must typically schedule 12 credits in other courses. To require him to spend 2 or 3 days in the field would necessitate increasing his fieldwork credits, with a consequent reduction in classroom work for that semester or quarter. Committees dealing with the approval of course offerings are typically staffed by traditionalists, who are hard to convince that learning of an academically respectable kind can occur in a nonclassroom situation. But changing climates of academic opinion exist today, as noted in the opening part of this paper, and greater flexibility of scheduling is one consequence that can benefit social welfare students and faculty.

Organization and Operation

Clearcut delegation of responsibility for field experience is required for both college faculty and agency staffs. Concomitant with this is allocation of sufficient time to plan, to work closely with students, and to evaluate students' performance and learning. A third ingredient is a close liaison between college and agency.

The patterns by which this is accomplished will vary, and no blueprint suitable for all situations can be drawn. Aspects of this topic were discussed at some length in an earlier publication; the present discussion will focus on additional considerations.[9]

A growing number of undergraduate programs are using a field instructor for a unit of students in a given agency or agencies. This person is a faculty member, usually—but by no means always—on a part-time basis. In other cases, agency personnel utilized in field instruction are regarded, either formally or informally, as adjunct faculty. Frequent meetings between college and agency field instructors are designed to provide for an exchange of information, joint planning, and solution of any problems that arise.

Neighborhood service centers have been created by undergraduate departments to provide field experience placements for their students. The field instructor hired by the college also functions in many cases as director of the service center. These centers may include day care, activities for senior citizens, services for neighborhood youths, and the like. Among the difficulties inherent in this kind of placement are the following: cost to the school, the limited kinds of placement that can be provided, the difficulties of building interrelationships with community resources and the problem of operating the agency or service during college vacation periods.

Undoubtedly undergraduate social welfare programs in the seventies will face greater competition than before from other subject areas or disciplines that have discovered the value of field experience. From elementary and secondary education and corrections to premedicine, undergraduate curricula are moving toward practicum requirements. It is not realistic to expect social agencies to deal with several representatives of the same educational institution, all of whom want to enlist agency cooperation in the educational enterprise. A coordinator of field experience for the entire college may be required, yet social welfare faculty members are likely to resist any administrative change that limits their freedom to deal with "their" agencies.

Since all member institutions of CSWE are now required to offer field placement, agencies are being approached by numbers of colleges in many geographic areas with the request that students be accepted for placement. The varying definitions of field experience held by the several colleges are confusing, as are differences in performance expectations, administrative plans, and faculty commitment. A coordinating instrumentality is needed, and in a number of cases this is performed through the council of social agencies. In Philadelphia, for example, the Council on Volunteers of the Health and Welfare Council places students from six colleges and universities in about ninety different agencies and services.

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[9] Margaret B. Matson, *Field Experience in Undergraduate Programs in Social Welfare* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1967).

A consortium arrangement is another possibility in cases when a number of schools in a specific geographic area need to coordinate plans for field placement. One faculty field instructor is responsible for working with faculty members from all the institutions in developing a field placement program, with benefit to both agencies and schools. Several of the projects funded by the Social and Rehabilitation Service under Title Section 707 of the Social Work Manpower and Training Act involve consortium arrangements.

Student Involvement

Field experience in the seventies will be affected by student concerns, and rightly so, since it is the student who is central to the entire program. It requires no crystal ball to foresee that students will ask for increased autonomy in selection of their own placements and for more opportunity to participate in a meaningful way in the work of the agency or service. Students can be expected to become increasingly more critical of some aspects of their placements: agency policies, practitioners' "old fashioned middle-class" views, inadequate preparation, "nonrelevant" courses and field assignments, and the like. Today's students are less satisfied than their predecessors with the social problems approach to poverty, race relations, and social legislation and with gradualism in meeting societal needs. Today's students are action oriented, eager to move into community- and client-oriented service, and dissatisfied with an approach based exclusively on long-range goals.

Their attitudes can be viewed as unrealistic, idealistic, negative, threatening, and nonconformist—and therefore to be dealt with summarily. This approach is not only unproductive and conducive to tension and hostility, but it also robs the school and agency of the opportunity for constructive input from students. To listen—*really* listen—to student interests and concerns and to work cooperatively with students and agencies in designing field experiences that are educationally sound and challenging will result in truly bridging the gap between student status and worker status.

FACULTY RESPONSIBILITIES

A faculty member planning and operating a field experience program assumes responsibilities to the three constituent groups involved: students, agencies, and educational institution.

To the Student

The field experience program must provide opportunity for *learning:* theoretical, practical, cognitive, affective. A mechanism must be provided for relating this learning to the classroom learning that has preceded and will follow the field experience. This may take the form of seminars, conferences, "debriefing" sessions, or a combination of these. The nonclassroom learning experience must permit participation in the service function of the agency and provide challenge and an opportunity for the student to test himself in a new situation. The field placement program must be individualized and flexible, yet there must be sufficient structure to prevent the placement from being simply another "happening."

The faculty member must know his students well enough to assess their readiness for field experience in general and to make recommendations concerning appropriate placements for individual students. He needs to help students establish realistic expectations about the non-classroom learning situation: goals, assignments, use of self in a helping relationship, evaluative procedures. Maintaining continuing relationships with students and being available for agency visits and conferences are important responsibilities.

In carrying out these responsibilities the faculty field instructor can obtain invaluable help from students who have completed their field experience. Feedback is essential. The student grapevine will operate with its usual efficiency whether faculty tap into it or not, and surely its content should be used in a systematic way to identify strengths and weaknesses of the field placement program. Several institutions have found student advisory council helpful.

To the Agency

The faculty field instructor must work cooperatively with agency staff to define the specifics of field placement: What is the student expected to learn? How is this to be accomplished? How will the student be introduced to the agency? How will the agency provide field instruction? Details about the academic calendar, hours to be worked, conference time to be scheduled, and the like should be agreed on before placement is made.

Responsibility for selecting students for specific agencies is carried by the faculty member in most cases, although in some areas (as in Philadelphia) this is undertaken by a council on volunteers serving several schools. The educational institution needs to provide information about individual students: academic preparation, interests, hobbies, volunteer service or paid employment experience, skills, special abilities or disabilities, and career plans. In preparing students for placement, the faculty member should inform them of general requirements and obligations: confidentiality, responsible behaivor, adherence to agency policy, conformity with agency norms of punctuality, dress, and the like. Since few if any students will have had supervision of the social work variety, the faculty members should make clear to the student some of the implications of the supervisory relationship.

To the Educational Institution

A major responsibility, of course, is to ensure that the field experience provides opportunity for learning of the kind that can best take place outside the classroom. This involves careful analysis of *what* is to be taught *where*. Another way of phrasing this is to say that optimal use should be made of college or university resources.

Analysis of classroom offerings in psychology, sociology, child development, political science, and economics is necessary to ensure that contributions from these areas are fully utilized in the social welfare program. Failure to use existing resources is costly, as well as academically unsound.

Allied to this is the necessity of identifying clearly costs and benefits and to obtain from the administration the resources needed for a viable field experience program. Several of the authors in this volume have commented directly or indirectly on the cost of undergraduate social welfare education and have indicated the undesirability of shoestring operations. The present comments are intended to reinforce these admonitions. Once a commitment has been made, it is the further responsibility of the faculty member to structure the program within limits imposed by academic policies regarding time, budget, and credit hours.

Maintaining liaison with agencies and students on behalf of the educational institution is obviously the responsibility of the faculty field instructor. It is necessary that he be available on a scheduled basis for conferences, and provision must also be made for handling any emergencies that arise.

Evaluation of the work of students in field placement is a part of the assignment undertaken by the faculty field instructor. While the agency provides input in the form of performance evaluation, the responsibility for evaluating educational attainment and issuing grades cannot and should not be removed from the faculty member.

Evaluation of the entire field experience program is also an important part of the faculty member's task. Continuing review is needed to prevent rigidity, to ensure integration of classroom and field learning, and to keep the program in step with developments in both education and practice.

Part Four

Task Force on Implications For The Continuum

INTRODUCTION

Mereb E. Mossman

Task Force IV has developed its assignment within the framework of the purposes of the project:

> Syracuse University proposes a project to assist in developing strong undergraduate programs to prepare the emerging B.A. level practitioner for a career in social work. Special aims also include an examination and study of the implications of the practice role of the B.A. practitioner and assisting the profession in achieving a greater consensus of the function and role of the B.A. level practitioner . . . .

The members of Task Force IV spent 2 days together in October 1969 and 2 days in January 1970 delineating the questions that seemed central to a consideration of an educational continuum in social work. The results of their labors are the papers included here, which focus on each of the various levels along the educational continuum: associate, baccalaureate, and graduate. An additional paper looks at the continuum from the agency's point of view. Although the questions around which each paper was developed were a result of team thinking, the individual papers represent the thoughts of the individual authors. The following are the questions around which the papers were developed:

ASSOCIATE DEGREE

In a discussion of the educational continuum in preparation for social work, questions need to be asked concerning the social welfare sequence that is being developed in junior colleges and technical institutes.

Is the associate degree a part of the social work career ladder or are the contributions of education at this level more broadly related to the human services? What educational issues are involved?

Are there parts of the social welfare or social work curriculum at the associate level that may represent credits transferable to 4-year institutions? On what bases may transferability be established? What are the implications for bachelor's degree sequences of work in social welfare done in the first 2 years in a junior college?

What are the implications for curriculum-building in social welfare? What alternative plans of educational linkage with the bachelor's degree might be suggested?

What questions might be raised concerning the admission and selection of students for social welfare services at this level?

BACCALAUREATE DEGREE

What problems must be solved to achieve a clear statement of minimum educational requirements at the baccalaureate level in social work? If no commonly agreed-upon minimum educational requirements exist, can there be a recognized practice level for baccalaureate graduates? What kinds of educational recognition would be implied if the bachelor's degree is so recognized? What are major issues of concern at the baccalaureate level?

If an objective of the bachelor's degree program is to prepare students for social work practice, how should a college answer the following: What shall be the content of the curriculum? What qualifications do the faculty need to handle this curriculum? Where can the program be housed administratively so that it can achieve its objectives effectively? Who should be admitted to the program and based on what criteria? How and on what criteria will the college certify that a student has successfully completed a program?

What may be the effect of professionalizing the bachelor's degree on its location in the liberal arts college or on the attitude of liberal arts students and faculty toward the social welfare or social work major? How may this affect the selection of students—will the better students continue to be attracted? Will the social welfare program continue to contribute to the liberal education of students?

GRADUATE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

1. Issues related to graduate education:

What issues are related to the content (and its modification) of master's and doctoral programs if the bachelor's program becomes a recognized level for positions in social work? For example, will there be new kinds of administrative responsibilities for those who hold graduate degrees and will this lead to the modification of graduate curricula?

Does the notion of a continuum imply several educational tracks? Will there be a ladder or will there be various ways in which students may move? For example, will baccalaureate graduates who have not had a social welfare or social work major enter a 2-year master's program while others holding a bachelor's degree with a major in social welfare or social work enter a 1-year master's program? There may be other possibilities; will there be much greater flexibility in planning the curriculum for individual students?

If evidence begins to develop for increased frequency of the 1-year master's, will this not also place more emphasis on the doctoral program? This seems to have important implications for the profession. It raises the matter of assuring flexibility in both timing and educational patterns.

2. Educational considerations to be examined if the bachelor's degree is looked on as a recognized educational level for beginning positions in social work:

What about the distribution and characteristics of the faculty: Should there be at least one full-time MSW or DSW (or Ph. D.) teaching in the undergraduate program? Should the instructor(s) in charge of field experience have a graduate social work degree? Will it be easier to develop faculty for the baccalaureate programs when the bachelor's and master's are offered in the same institution? Would this afford opportunities for graduate students to teach undergraduates? What are the problems of recruiting faculty for institutions that have no school of social work?

A major question is the relationship of the undergraduate program to the general university structure. Will questions be raised about its location in the liberal arts college if it is recognized as the first educational level for beginning positions in social work and if it has certain minimum requirements that may seem to be professional in character? Or is this a valid distinction? The distinction between liberal arts and professional education may be based on false assumptions.

There are questions about the admission of students to the university and the special characteristics of those admitted to the social welfare sequence.

Curriculum policies and questions relative to the development of programs, distribution of work, and the relationship between undergraduate and graduate programs must be considered.

Questions also exist relative to certification and the educational implications of the baccalaureate program in preparation for social work practice.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE CONTINUUM FOR AGENCIES

What questions are being asked about the uses made of students coming from different educational levels and programs?

What kinds of educational experiences in the field should undergraduates be given by the agency? What is the relationship of the educational institution to the agency?

What values if any do agencies see in providing learning experiences for students from different educational levels (associate, bachelor's, and graduate) during the same period of time?

THE ASSOCIATE DEGREE IN THE SOCIAL SERVICES

Donald Feldstein

The community college graduate is rapidly becoming a significant part of the social welfare work force. As new community college programs open and develop, thousands more will join the first graduates in the field. How, if at all, does the education of this group connect with education for other levels of practice in the social service? Specifically, what implications does the existence of an associate degree level hold for the baccalaureate social worker (BSW), himself just beginning to come into his own? What problems may be anticipated and perhaps avoided?

The nature of associate degree programs in the social services is described elsewhere.[1] In brief, these are 2-year programs offered primarily by community colleges, combining some 32 credits of general education with about 16 credits in social science courses related to social welfare and up to 16 credits in technical courses focusing on practice skills and field experience. These programs are offered under a variety of titles: child care worker, neighborhood aide, social work technician; the guide of the Council on Social Work Education recommends the more generic title of community services technician.[2] Graduates may enter the job market or go on to 4-year colleges, transferring as many of the credits earned in the community college as possible.

One problem for the baccalaureate social welfare program is already emerging. Graduate programs in social work clearly are professionally defined and so identified and understood by everyone—employers, civil service, and the like. Similarly, the associate degree programs are seen as technical, occupational, and skill oriented, and deserving of recognition as such. The baccalaureate program, liberally based and less visible, may find its graduates being squeezed out of the job market from both above and below. The MSW's do the "professional" work; the associates the "technical" work. The BSW is in some undefined middle ground.

The answer is not to reject the liberal content that is so essential to a sound four-year program. The traditional dichotomy between professional and liberal education has been overemphasized in the past.[3] Undergraduate social work programs can lead in eliminating this dichotomy and preparing educated and flexible practitioners. The liberal base should continue, but job status for the BSW must also develop. If this is the first level of professional practice in social work, acceptance of this idea must become part of civil service categories, private agency hiring patterns, and the salary structure. Only when the undergraduate programs are strong will they be able to relate properly and nondefensively to the associate degree programs in social welfare.

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[1] Donald Feldstein, *Community College and Other Associate Degree Programs for Social Welfare Areas* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1968).

[2] *The Community Services Technician: Guide for Associate Degree Programs in the Community and Social Services* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1969).

THE ASSOCIATE DEGREE IN THE CONTINUUM

The technician will be a significant part of the social welfare work force, but his place in the division of work levels is less clear. There are fundamentally two ways in which occupational groups with less education and training can relate to the professional group in their field. One option is as a preprofessional or lower-level professional in a continuous chain of advancement. Engineering is an example of a field in which such an arrangement has been established. There are baccalaureate, master's, and doctoral engineers doing similar professional work, each able to deal with a different order of complexity. The occupational therapy assistant, to offer another example, is an associate degree holder in the image of the baccalaureate occupational therapist, but working at a lower level of autonomy and complexity. It is assumed that the best occupational therapy assistants will advance to become occupational therapists.

Therefore, one way for the community services technician to develop is as a preprofessional technician. His work would be patterned on the less autonomous and complex parts of social work tasks, and he would be viewed as being on a continuum leading toward professional social work. The implication for the associate degree curriculum is clear. It ought to include as much content as possible that would be useful to a social work career ladder.

There is a second way in which technical occupations may be viewed —actually more common and truer to the definition of technician. The technician is the most highly skilled worker in the performance of a specific task or group of tasks that can be learned without extensive advanced training. He may be guided and regulated by a "parent" profession, but the technical skill he has will not lead eventually to membership in that profession. Physicians are the professionals in the health field. They set certain standards and guidelines for the health technicians within which these technicians operate. But the training of an X-ray technician or a dental hygienist (to take another field) is not geared toward the eventual education of physicians or dentists. Within the specific technical skill learned, the X-ray technician or dental hygienist may be superior to or better trained than his physician or dentist counterpart, but it is not expected that the best X-ray technicians or dental hygienists will go on to become physicians or dentists. In fact, in the course of time these technologies develop hierarchies of their own, with further training and supervisory posts within the fields of X-ray technology and dental hygiene. One could envision the development of such specialties in social welfare—for example, child care workers, homemakers, and neighborhood organizers. Social work would guide the development of these occupations by setting broad standards and guidelines, but they would not be steps on the road to becoming a social worker.

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[3] This point is covered more fully in Joseph Vigilante, "Legitimating Undergraduate Social Work Education: Educational-Administrative Considerations," this volume, pp. 179.

There is much to this second option that is logical and attractive, but it ignores some of the realities of the social work field and of the problems of technical occupations generally. The community colleges offer a new potential for bringing into the social work field large numbers of the educationally disadvantaged, a group that social work is committed to recruit and train. It is in the community college that such people can be recruited, socialized to the academic world, and passed on to other levels of education. It would be a shame to give up those who have an early interest in social welfare by routing them into a technical occupation that is not easily transferable to the social work career ladder. The nonacademically oriented student may enter because of an interest in developing a specific technical skill, but he should not be written off or shunted onto a track that will make it difficult or impossible for him to transfer to higher levels of education in social work. The net result of such a choice for the technical occupations would be the creation of a kind of two-class structure in social welfare—a lowerclass and primarily black civil service on the technical end and an upperclass elite on the professional end, with little opportunity to break the barriers between them.

On the other hand it is easy to criticize the first option. Talk about "lower levels of complexity" is really begging the question of task assignment. It gives little guidance to the agency that honestly wants to differentiate between what should be done by different levels of workers or to the educator who wants to know what he should teach. In some ways it even insults the concept of what the technician can really do. If the technician is a kind of "pre"-social worker, what should be his assignment?

We have no choice but to try to walk both roads at once. The associate degree curriculum must prepare students for employment, teaching certain specific skills, including those in areas in which the technician may be more advanced than the professional. At the same time, the same basic content areas are being dealt with at all levels of social work education—content on human behavior in society, social policy and social institutions, practice skills. There will therefore be similarities in curriculum on all levels. There will be ways in which the associate degree program is like a master's or baccalaureate program, only less difficult and less complex, unscientific as that formulation may be.

There are some advantages to this insistence that associates are at once both strictly technical and yet capable of advancement toward professionalization in social work:

1. By straddling the fence future options are open. The social work continuum may evolve either way, toward certain technical occupations within social welfare or toward preprofessional social work, or both.

2. There is something inherently generic about the skills needed in the social welfare field which suggests that no matter how well tasks are defined, there will always be something similar and transferable in the appropriate skills and knowledge taught on different levels. This is something we should not decry but proclaim proudly. Social work has to begin to acknowledge its uniqueness as a profession within the social sciences context, different from the medical, legal, or other models. Social work technicians can be social science technicians, with the kind of general knowledge base that implies.

3. There is evidence that social work may not be so unique in the future. The explosion of and rapid changes in technology suggest that in many fields the training even of technicians will have to be increasingly general, increasingly founded on learning basic principles, so that the technician can adjust to the rapid changes in detail without becoming technologically outdated. Increasingly the best technicians may be the best lower level generalists.[4]

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[4] Angelo C. Gillie, *Occupational Education in the Two Year College*, (University Park, Pa.: Pennsylvania State University, 1970) offers a plan for a "generalist" curriculum in the most technical fields, such as electronics. One quote may suffice: "Many of the two-year colleges have committed huge sums of money for the purchase of computers, . . . not long after its arrival on campus have learned that a new generation of computers have come into being. Yet the college hadn't really recovered from their first computer investment and the trade-in value is scandalous. At the same time the soul-shaking thought comes up that maybe, since that computer is becoming obsolete, the training they are conducting with it is also passe. How does a responsible President approach his trustees with this dilemma? Can he in all conscientiousness request that another computer of the latest generation be purchased? After all, it's only been a few years since the other one was purchased and only a few graduates have been turned out to industry (and only a few semesters of marks and other administrative records have been stored). If an economy minded trustee should perform one simple division problem (i.e., the number of computer student graduates divided into the cost of the computer), the per student cost would be found to be unbelievable. This kind of experience, where expensive specialized equipment loses much of its modernism in a few years, helps to establish and perpetuate the belief that occupational education is very expensive and leads many colleges to feel that they cannot afford to conduct many occupational programs.

"The irony of it all is that the poorly thought out and ill-designed programs are the expensive ones (as described above). Well thought out and carefully designed programs are generally much more reasonable in cost and can be justified in a good cost-analysis investigation.

"The development of elaborate laboratories and shops, which almost invariably become outdated and are unnecessarily expensive, are frequently used in ways that are educationally indefensible. It is questionable if, in many cases, it can really be called education in the real sense of the word. Often times, the conducted activities are nothing more than out-and-out training for specific tasks on specific equipment (that is already either out-dated or on the way of becoming so). There is no question here as to the importance of such training in terms of the needs of certain industries. The real question is: *Shouldn't* such training be provided by industry with their equipment in their facilities at the time they demand workers with these skills? In other words: Isn't this really just another kind of on-the-job training . . . ?" (Page 3–2.) Gillie goes on to call for a cognitive approach to technical training.

TASK DIFFERENTIATION

The state of social work on all levels is one of poor delineation and differentiation of tasks, and the emergence of the associate degree is not by itself going to solve that complex problem. There are literally dozens of studies recently completed, going on, or about to begin that address themselves to pieces of this problem. None of them has provided or seems about to provide clear-cut guidelines on what tasks people at different levels can actually perform. Only one important yardstick seems to hold up in the task studies that have been done so far, and that is the scale of "worker autonomy" suggested some years ago by Richan. With increasingly higher levels of education workers can operate with more independence and can do more long-range diagnosis, planning, and evaluation. They can supervise and train others. But even this does not suggest where the markings on the yardstick are.

There are further difficulties in providing precise and specific task definitions for the social work technician. The boundaries in social work have never been properly defined, and on the associate degree level this fuzziness complicates the picture. For example, there are some programs in child care that are geared toward the field of education and some that are clearly guided by social work methods and philosophy. In corrections there is a question as to whether correctional workers represent an emerging separate professional group or whether they are actually part of social work, and—if so—what parts of corrections are part of social work. As a further example, mental health takes guidance in part from the health field and in part from social work. These are just some of the boundary questions.

Social work need not be abjectly apologetic about this state of affairs. While it represents the profession's weakness, it also represents its strength. Social work has drifted from emphasis to emphasis in different times, as a "tinkerer" in social problem areas, wherever those social problems have been identified. As an applied profession, social work is not constrained or constricted by the limitations of an "-ology." Like medicine, which in one decade leans more on chemistry, in another more on physiology, and in yet another on psychology, social work will borrow from various sciences to move where the action is. In doing so it enters from time to time the territory of other groups. And it finds it difficult, if not impossible, to define just what its tasks, methods, and activities are.

Is this really so bad? One of the newer forms of social work's traditional self-flagellation has been to bemoan the inability to differentiate tasks by educational level. But if we were really comfortable in the belief that higher levels of education produce more skills, we would not be so concerned. The three levels of engineers are still all engineers—it is only assumed that an engineer with a master's or doctoral degree can do some things that baccalaureates cannot or can do them better. But that is demonstrated in the field; no one worries about formal task differentiation.

We believe that the BSW will be better able to perform in the social services than will the technician. The graduate social worker can, as a rule, do even better. It would be nice if some placement guidance could be given to agencies. But such guidance will always be imperfect, and this need not disturb us unless we do not really believe that persons with higher levels of education can demonstrate greater competence. What happens in the field will be the ultimate determiner.

This does not mean that all attempts to delineate roles should be abandoned. It does mean that no final answers will emerge from empirical studies. But something can be done with respect to task differentiation. The answers to task allocation will not come out of any study of what exists now. They can only be developed by an extended meeting of leaders in social work practice and education to postulate a model of what should be, which can then be modified and corrected over time as new needs arise.

But for the present task differentiation in social work will continue to be most imperfect. Associate degree programs must in their development keep that in mind. Graduates practicing in the field will help find the solution but education and jobs cannot wait for a full answer.

TEACHING METHODS

It has been suggested that community college programs are a major vehicle for bringing into the mainstream of social work education large numbers of the educationally disadvantaged. Recruiting such students is hardly sufficient; recruiting them implies a responsibility to help them to succeed. The whole concept of higher education is changing. Education was once seen as a commodity, which some consumers could use and others could not. The responsibility or onus for that use was on the consumer. The concept toward which we are moving is that the consumer is educable. It is therefore the responsibility of the educational institution to find out how to educate him. Cohen has put it well: "Goals are stated in such words as: 'The student will learn to . . . ,' rather than 'The college offers the opportunity for . . . .' " The college thus accepts accountability for doing its job.

Being faced with a whole new class of students imposes a severe challenge on educational institutions. It demands task-oriented teaching methods, the use of programed instruction, visual aids, and computerized teaching. It demands creative approaches and an understanding of the culture of the student. In other words, it imposes demands on the higher levels of social work education to begin training professional social workers who will be capable of teaching and supervising this class of student. This is an area in which the graduate schools of social work have made only the barest beginnings; they will need help. This is a major implication of the emergence of associate degree programs for graduate education in social work.

LINKAGES BETWEEN ASSOCIATE AND BACCALAUREATE PROGRAMS

Let us assume that a student graduates from a social welfare program in a community college in consonance with the new CSWE guide. This means that he will have completed a solid field experience program, approximately three technical courses in practice skills, and about one and a half year's worth of liberal arts courses, with much emphasis on the social sciences. When such a student applies to a 4-year college for admittance to a baccalaureate program in social welfare, what shall be done? One could revert to the social work mystique that everything must be learned afresh in the special atmosphere provided by that specific program, or one could simply give blanket credit for all courses taken, without regard for the age or maturity of the student or the curriculum content of the community college. Either of these approaches would be a mistake. The student who takes a skills course in his freshman year at the age of 17 may have some problems if on the basis of that course the necessity for learning such material in the 4-year program is waived and his baccalaureate degree is then used as a basis for waiving that material in a graduate program. This would mean that he will eventually receive a master's degree based in part on specific skills learned 6 years earlier. On the other hand, to ignore the fact that a student coming out of a sound associate program has certain knowledge and skills that other students do not have, or to make him repeat that material, is unfair and insulting to the student and unproductive in manpower planning.

Several plans for linkage are possible. All of the sound ones assume that basically the 4-year college will be willing, if the community college meets certain standards, to credit the material taken there and to accept the community college graduate as a junior

Colleges could have advanced social welfare material or special sections of classes for students from community college or with such work experience. They could try to make up for lack of liberal arts material in the first 2 years by giving a more intensive dose of that in the last two, essentially inverting the program. This raises questions of sequencing. Can skills normally built on the basis of social science knowledge be taught in the freshman year before social sicence courses are taken? The answer is yes, if it is done planfully. One can teach from the specific to the general or from the general to the specific, and there are well-thought-out educational plans for moving in either direction. However, in neither case does it make sense simply to have Course B follow Course A unless thought is given to how the building from one to the other is done. If such thought is given, then the building can be done in a variety of ways. With thoughtfulness and sound advising of students, colleges are coming to appreciate that it is the individual student who is the main integrator of knowledge, and that therefore sequencing must vary in any event.

We suggest that the 4-year college accepting students from a sound community college program in social welfare essentially invert its program. The third and fourth years should be concerned primarily with the liberal arts, with much of the social welfare technical content waived. However, some field experience is suggested, and/or a senior seminar in which the new conceptual material is integrated with existing skills. In that way the college can comfortably graduate the student with a degree suggesting a social welfare major, concentration, or sequence. To implement such a plan, some colleges will need to scrap rigid rules and concepts about the separation and inviolability of "lower division" and "upper division."

Another point on linkages: for any professional program the school must reserve the right to make individual judgments about the capacities of students, based on interviews or whatever other evaluative methods it decides to use. However, once a student has successfully completed a course of study in an accredited community college, his high school record—even his failure to complete high school if such should be the case—should be deemed irrelevant to a judgment of his academic readiness. It is the job of a community college to test the capacity of its students to handle higher education and to socialize them to the culture of higher education. If an accredited community college has done this successfully, students should not be penalized for previous educational gaps or disadvantages.

TYPES OF STUDENTS

Much has been said about the educationally disadvantaged student. It may even be possible that service to the educationally disadvantaged will turn out to be a residual function—that this group will eventually disappear. There are other groups of students besides the educationally disadvantaged and ghetto residents who might find their way into the social work continuum and go on to higher education in social work who could be brought in through the community college. This group includes:

1. Housewives with a high school education who may have children entering school and who desire to enter the labor market, but who are wary of a long course of study or other demands they suspect a 4-year college may make on them.
2. Activist students who want to do something about the world around them and who are seeking some professional arena within which to work.
3. Students undecided about a career, who enter community colleges seeking a program that is essentially transferable, but who would be attracted by something that also has some occupational viability.
4. The "late bloomers." One community college program in social welfare canvassed its local high schools for high-IQ students who were failing or barely passing. A number of these were recruited to the program, and after the passing of an adolescent crisis began doing extremely well. Adolescence will probably always be a time when some people drop out. If later they find themselves, the community college can be an answer.

THE ASSOCIATE DEGREE CURRICULUM AND THE BA PROGRAM

The purpose of this paper is not to discuss the associate degree curriculum. However, the content of that curriculum will have implications for what is taught on the baccalaureate and higher levels. In the same way as it is impossible at this stage to make sharp distinctions in job tasks among the different levels of social welfare practice, it is difficult to make simple distinctions among the levels in curriculum content.

We are dealing with the same basic content areas. As community college programs develop, we will begin to learn more about what can be contained in the curriculum and what content students can successfully master. Two assumptions from which to begin are suggested:

1. The "bottom-up" approach. For too long social work education has been constrained by using the master's degree curriculum as the given. That is to say, we begin with what is taught on the master's degree level and then ask, "What less than that may be taught on the baccalaureate level?" Presumably we should also ask, "What less than that may be taught on the associate degree level?" The bottom-up approach suggests that the only intelligent way to build curriculum is the other way around. We must begin by asking, "What is it reasonable to teach and for students to learn on the associate degree level?" The responsibility is for educators at the baccalaureate level to take that student to another point of sophistication and knowledge. Similarly, the master's degree curriculum must take the student from where the baccalaureate program leaves off. While there may be sound questions as to what ought to be taught on the associate degree level, one of these qustions is *not* "What will be left for us to teach in the third and fourth year?"

2. We start with the assumption that much of the content previously taught on higher levels can legitimately be moved downward. Certainly the experience with VISTA and Peace Corps volunteers has taught that much of what has previously been reserved for the master's degree student could be done well by baccalaureates. Empirical studies have suggested the same. The limited experience of Community Action Programs and the various agencies employing indigenous workers tells us further that the associate degree holder can be taught to do all kinds of things that have previously been reserved for the professional. This is certainly threatening, and the degree to which this is true is not certain, but it is no longer possible to deny the fact. Even the associate degree program must be sensitive to the possibility that it is training for functions that could be performed by untrained aides.

CUTTING INTO THE MAINSTREAM

People learn in many ways. A commitment to formal educational institutions does not force us to argue that only through such institutions can people achieve any degree of competence. It merely suggests that educational institutions are the best means society has come up with for formalizing a system under which large numbers of people can be brought to given levels of knowledge or skill. Any number of individuals may reach that same level through life experiences, independent study, and so on. The problem is one of bringing together those individuals who have achieved levels of competence through maturity, experience, and the like with the formal credentialing system that is so necessary to the maintenance of society. Our commitment to the clients of social work service forces us to accept some responsibility for standard-setting with respect to who may offer that service. The challenge is not to do away with credentialing, but to make it open and rational.

The associate degree is especially suited to give recognition to individuals who have achieved a level of competence in other than academic ways and who wish to move into the beginning of a certifiable mainstream. The community college is already beginning to develop a tradition of taking students with any high school diploma or its equivalent, or even without a high school diploma, instead of only students with high secondary school grade averages. The community college is suited to serve as a bridge—to be freer than the four-year college in crediting various informal educational experiences, but then to test and certify a student with an associate degree that can be recognized and move on in a more formal way to the next level of education.

Social work must seize on the opportunities afforded by this magnificent institution, the community college. This can be done without romanticizing or having any illusions about any inherent superiority of the poor. But it must be done. If social work moves boldly, both practice in social welfare and baccalaureate education in social work will be strengthened.

THE BACHELOR'S DEGREE PROGRAM IN THE SOCIAL WORK CONTINUUM

Mereb E. Mossman

Much has happened in social work education since 1959 when Herbert Bisno's volume on *The Place of the Undergraduate Curriculum in Social Work Education,* published as part of the comprehensive curriculum study completed under the auspices of the Council on Social Work Education, stirred such discussion. At a time when all recognized professional social work education has become graduate education, those engaged in the curriculum study proposed that undergraduate and graduate programs should be conceived of as stages within a single program of social work education. It was further proposed that social work education at the undergraduate level should have as one of its recognized goals the preparation of students for employment in social work following graduation.

It is small wonder that the proposals in the Bisno volume faced such differences of opinion. At that time the only recognized route into membership in the profession was by way of an accredited graduate school of social work—and these graduate schools had only recently been able to gain a firm control of all professional education in the field.[1] The proposal of an educational continuum appeared to them a failure to recognize the hard-earned victory that had been won in upgrading social work education and thus the profession. On the other hand, colleges and universities that offer some courses with social work content did so with such a variety of patterns and objectives that they had no common curricular characteristics. This was true even of those institutions that had identified themselves with CSWE under the Council's loosely defined membership requirements for undergraduate institutions.[2]

In the 10 years since completion of the curriculum study, colleges and universities concerned with undergraduate education for social welfare have, with CSWE leadership, clarified some of the troubling uncertainties and confusions that had made them weak educational partners in the preparation of baccalaureate degree holders entering the social welfare field. They have been examining their objectives for undergraduate social welfare education, have considered the kinds of organization that might give this sequence the greatest strength, and have been experimenting with curricula that may fulfill the purposes of the program most effectively.

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[1] For background on the history of graduate-undergraduate developments in social work *see* Arnulf M. Pins, "Undergraduate Education in Social Welfare," *The Social Welfare Forum* (New York: Columbia University Press; 1967), pp. 142–148.

[2] Herbert Bisno, *The Place of the Undergraduate Curriculum in Social Work Education* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1959), Appendix A.

The extensive literature on undergraduate programs that appeared between 1960 and 1970 attests to the interest of educators, professional social work associations, and social agencies in the role of the undergraduate program. One of the most important documents that has appeared is the guide that was developed by CSWE in 1962 and revised in 1967.[3] The recommendations in these guides represent positions and alternatives developed from the experience of social work educators and carry the approval of the CSWE board; in the absence of empirical evidence these documents have served as working papers. Both have been widely used. They have provided bases for state, regional, and national workshops and institutes, for consultations with faculty, and for college and university administrators seeking help in this area.

In addition regional educational bodies (notably the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, the Southern Regional Education Board, and the New England Board of Higher Education) have given substantial attention to developments in this area. In many states college and university faculty members teaching in and directing undergraduate social welfare programs have organized into groups that hold regular conferences. A number of graduate schools of social work have developed undergraduate sequences or majors in social welfare or social work. Several schools of social work have received approval from the CSWE Commission on Accreditation to experiment, outside current policy, with undergraduate-graduate programs in a continuum so carefully planned that the period required for a master's degree may be shortened to 1 year or the curriculum of the 2-year program substantially enriched. The wide range of work that has been carried on in relation to undergraduate programs is cited as evidence of the fact that we are now ready to reexamine the implications of bachelor's degree education in the continuum of social work education.

Two other significant developments should be mentioned, one of which has already served as a catalyst for the growth of carefully thought through undergraduate social welfare programs; the second will have its effect during the 1970's.

The first relates to Federal funding in support of undergraduate social welfare education. Throughout the 1960's several Federal bureaus, including the Social and Rehabilitation Service, the Children's Bureau, the Veterans Administration, the Rehabilitation Service (formerly the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration), and the National Institute of Mental Health, have made substantial grants to strengthen undergraduate programs; in addition there has been Federal funding through

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[3] *Social Welfare Content in Undergraduate Education: A Guide to Suggested Content, Learning Experiences, and Organization* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1962); *Undergraduate Programs in Social Welfare: A Guide to Objectives, Content, Field Experience, and Organization* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1967).

State departments of social service on a 75-25 percent basis. With the passage of the Social Work Manpower and Training Act (an amendment to the Social Security Act) in 1967, provision was made for grants to colleges and accredited schools of social work to meet part of the cost of the development, expansion, or improvement of both undergraduate and graduate programs for the training of social work personnel. Not less than one-half of the amount appropriated was designated to be used for undergraduate programs. Of the $5 million authorized by Congress, $3 million was appropriated for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1969. This funding has stimulated improvement in the quality of undergraduate social welfare education, has supported experimentation in new curricular developments, and has helped place undergraduate programs on sound bases.

One other major development is a recent action by the National Association of Social Workers. By vote of its membership in 1969 the professional membership organization approved the admission into regular membership of persons holding a bachelor's degree with an undergraduate sequence in social work that meets the criteria established by CSWE.[4]

It is evident that a number of factors have been at work strengthening undergraduate education in social welfare, thus making the concept of an educational continuum more realistic as we move into the 1970's.

THE CHANGING SOCIAL MILIEU

It is interesting to look back and note that the dominant motif for the development of undergraduate programs in social welfare has been the existence of a great gap between the supply of social workers and the jobs available. One cannot turn to the literature of the field or examine the reports of the program meetings of any major social work group during the late 1950's and sixties without finding repeated references to the unmet need for social work personnel. Joseph Weber, speaking at the Arden House Workshop on Manpower in August 1967, stated the problem as those in social agencies saw it:

> We have reached a strange paradox in social welfare: "To much money and not enough people." The painful realities of personnel shortages have now reached every sector of our welfare system. It is not uncommon to meet an agency administrator whose main complaint is not that of obtaining adequate financing, but where to find the staff to make use of the program money he has.[5]

An important factor in the interest of undergraduate institutions in social welfare, then, originally grew out of the awareness that students with bachelor's degrees were being recruited to fill social work jobs; the colleges responded by developing courses and learning experiences that seemed appropriate to prepare their students more broadly for beginning social work positions. (In the current state of flux of organizational patterns in the delivery of social services, the need for baccalaureate graduates in the public social services is considerably less clear than it was in the 1960's.)

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[4] CSWE, with board approval, revised its membership requirements in November 1967, making them substantially more explicit. Again in April 1969 the board approved further strengthening of the bases for CSWE membership. *See* Appendix B of this volume for the report of the statement of the new requirements.

[5] *Manpower: A Community Responsibility*, report of the Arden House Workshop, August 13-16, 1967 (New York: National Commission for Social Work Careers, National Association of Social Workers), p. 5.

However, other considerations have recently become as relevant as the practical one that promoted the original interest of both educational institutions and students. One of these is related to students—their greater educational sophistication and general concern with the problems of contemporary society.

Students today are more knowledgeable than their predecessors. Grounded in the basic disciplines of the social and behavioral sciences, they are ready in their junior and senior years, indeed often earlier, to relate the knowledge they have gained to life around them. They have participated in peace marches, worked in the South on voter registration, been in the war in Vietnam, tutored disadvantaged ghetto students, served in VISTA and the Peace Corps—and in their educational experience they want to come to grips with ways in which they can bring the theoretical knowledge of the classroom to bear on what society is doing or should be doing about the problems they have seen. They want to learn how to help develop, restore, and facilitate the functioning of individuals in society and, if necessary, how to change society. They want to get out in the field and test their theories.

These students are not just responding to manpower needs or job vacancies in social welfare. They are choosing social welfare because they see this field as offering them opportunities for involvement in social betterment. There are many colleges and universities in which the undergraduate social welfare or social work major or concentration has become one of the largest on the campus.

One other consideration has relevance for the early seventies. It has been recognized that although there seems to be a wide range of social work activities into which bachelor's degree holders go, the evidence we have begun to accumulate indicates that these students are performing satisfactorily. The fragmentary studies that exist indicate that in many instances the carefully limited service delivery positions assigned to baccalaureate social workers (BSW's) have been expanded when agencies discovered their abilities. The Veterans Administration, for example, has reported on the social work associate position that they have created for undifferentiated baccalaureate degree holders. Initiated as a task-oriented job, this position has now been enlarged to enable the associate to handle selected cases, as well as assignments to a program or unit with responsibility for segments or even all of the work, undertaking these activities independently but under the supervision of a social worker. The study reports:

> The professional responsibility for the social services provided the patients must remain with the MSW. He is the one held accountable. However, under his direction the social work associate can accomplish many of the activities which hitherto we considered only the MSW could do.[8]

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[8] Virginia C. Karl, "The BA Social Work Associate in the Veterans Administration." Unpublished paper presented at the Curriculum Building Workshop, Syracuse University, October 8–11, 1969.

Numerous other studies point in this same direction. Use of personnel with bachelor's degrees is no longer a matter of expediency—recognizing the shortage of manpower—but is based on recognized contributions they can make. If there were no shortage of workers with graduate professional degrees, there would still be a valid role for BSWs.[7]

EMERGENT ISSUES AND POSITIONS

There are several issues on which some agreement must be reached if the concept of an educational continuum in social work is to be realized. Basic to all of these is the underlying assumption that at each educational level—the associate, the baccalaureate, and the graduate—contributions can be made that will prepare students for different levels of practice in social work.[8] Each degree must therefore have a curriculum that is appropriate to its purposes and gives recognition to the student's previous educational experiences as he advances from undergraduate to graduate.

As we look at the bachelor's degree program in the perspective of a continuum, various points of view need to be taken into account as well as some of the questions these raise.

Undergraduate Education for Employment

One purpose in establishing a social work program leading to a baccalaureate degree is to prepare students to enter positions in social work.[9] When a college or university states that this is one of its objectives, there are special curricular, faculty, and organizational criteria that must be considered in establishing a program. It is one thing for a social welfare curriculum to be based in the liberal arts with its primary focus on providing for the enrichment of the general education of students; there are important additional implications when the purpose becomes more explicit and the institution's aim is to prepare its students for employment in social work immediately upon the receipt of a degree.

When the latter is true, there are definite obligations both to the student and to the field of social work practice. A college or university must then accept responsibility for answers to several questions: (1) What shall be the content of the curriculum? (2) What are the faculty qualifications required in handling this curriculum? (3) Where can the program be housed administratively so that it can most effectively achieve its objective? (4) Who should be admitted to the program and based on what criteria?[10] (5) How and on what criteria will the college certify that a student has successfully completed the program?

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[7] The Barker-Briggs research-demonstration project at Connecticut Valley State Hospital is a carefully designed study demonstrating creative use of various levels of personnel in a team approach.

See Report of Task Force V for the review of this and other studies which point out significant developments in the differential use of staff in some agencies.

[8] *See* Donald Feldstein, "The Associate Degree in the Social Services," this volume, pp. 139, for a discussion of recent developments in associate degree programs. For more detail *see* Donald Feldstein, *Community College and Other Associate Degree Programs in Social Welfare Areas* (New York: Council on Social Work Education); and *Guide for Associate Degree Programs in the Community and Social Services* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1969).

[9] *See* Sherman Merle, *Survey of Undergraduate Programs in Social Welfare* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1967). He found preparation for employment in social welfare to be the most prevalent objective of undergraduate social welfare programs.

Curricular Model

The curricular model for undergraduate education presented in the CSWE guide is the most carefully considered one in existence at this time and provides a common denominator from which institutions can move in the construction of undergraduate programs in social work.[11] Therefore colleges and universities that plan to prepare undergraduate students for social work positions should develop their curricula within the framework of this model. This is important, for there must be common content elements in undergraduate programs if social agencies are to know what they can expect of such workers. Similarly graduate schools of social work must be able to count on the commonality of educational experiences of baccalaureate graduates if the graduate school plans to build on these in the continuum leading from the bachelor's through the master's.

The model presented in the CSWE guide is broad enough in outline to enable institutions to determine desirable arrangements of work in relation to the backgrounds of their particular students. There is one area, however, in which the suggestion made in the guide is so fragmentary that it gives little help. This concerns content in interventive methods. There is the admonition that a generalized approach is recommended rather than separate courses in the various social work methods and that the content of such courses should prepare students for general problem-solving activity in various social welfare settings.[12] CSWE is currently preparing some syllabi that will provide suggestions on ways in which material in interventive methods may be taught in the undergraduate curriculum.

Criteria for Faculty Appointment

The new requirements for constituent membership in CSWE provide that an institution that offers a social work sequence or major with the stated objective of preparing students for social work positions must have on the faculty a full-time social work educator who holds a degree from a school of social work.[13] They further require that the faculty member who teaches interventive methods and the coordinator of field experience must have graduate social work degrees. A social scientist with no professional social work education can no longer be considered the proper person to teach undergraduate social work courses. When such a person is given this assignment, these courses too often hold little importance for him. This may be, as Soffen has said, because the social scientist has a goal orientation characterized by the desire *to know* with a value orientation toward *truth;* the professional orientation must add the dimension characterized by *how to do* with a goal orientation toward service.[14]

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[10] This question is discussed in another task force paper.

[11] *Undergraduate Programs in Social Welfare: A Guide to Objectives, Content, Field Experience and Organization*, pp. 7–13. This includes (1) foundation content in the basic disciplines dealing with the interaction of man and his environment and with the interrelation of the psychological, social, economic, political, and cultural systems, (2) content that deals with the problems and concerns of social welfare and relates these to the content learned in the foundation courses, and (3) field experience.

[12] Ibid., p. 13.

[13] *News for Undergraduate Educators in Social Welfare* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, June 1970).

There is an unanswered question as to whether a college or university should expect its undergraduate social work faculty to meet the same degree requirements as the faculty in other departments (usually a doctoral degree for senior ranks) or whether the professional social work degree (most frequently a master's) will continue to be acceptable. This is a question to which graduate social work education must address itself as more master's graduates enter both undergraduate and graduate teaching in social work. Currently it would not be realistic to establish the doctoral degree as a requirement for the large number of vacant positions. Social work education must face the fact that different kinds of learning experiences are required in preparing to teach than in preparing for practice. Are graduate schools of social work ready to assume responsibility for the education of educators?

ADMINISTRATIVE AUSPICES

It is easier to describe the academic climate in which a social work program will flourish than to suggest its specific location in a school or department.[15] A congenial administrative setting will be one in which the curricular model suggested can be readily developed and strongly supported, one in which faculty members can find colleagues in cognate departments with related interests, and one that can attract qualified and motivated students. The resources of the college of arts and sciences will need to be utilized extensively and much of the work in the social work program should be thought of as liberal and made available to all students on this basis.

However, the practice-preparation objective of the program also places an emphasis on an administrative location that can support a program committed to job preparation with some of the local welfare emphasis focused in this direction. Arts and sciences faculty frequently tend to think of the job preparation aspects of a program as demeaning and inappropriate to the arts and sciences; they may discourage excellent students from entering a program that has a vocational/professional direction as well as look down on courses and faculty concerned primarily with professional objectives.

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[14] Joseph Soffen, "Choosing and Preparing for a Career in Social Work Education," *The Social Work Educator* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1969), p. 4.

[15] *See* Ralph Dolgoff, "Administrative Auspices for Undergraduate Social Welfare Programs: Advantages and Disadvantages of Various Alternatives," *Social Work Education Reporter,* Vol. 17, No. 3 (September 1969).

Can the social work curriculum straddle these positions, maintaining a liberalizing stance while at the same time preparing students for positions in social work? Certainly courses that are concerned with such matters as the origins and development of welfare institutions, the values of society as reflected in these institutional arrangements, a study of major social problems and the kinds of services society has established to meet these, the role of government vis-a-vis voluntary efforts, and the like should be available to all students as a part of their liberal learning as well as to provide foundation knowledge for the social work profession. Content in the social welfare program that is more specifically related to methods and field experience should be open only to students who have the objective of social work employment after graduation or who are planning to enter a graduate school of social work.

What can be said about a likely college, school, or departmental affiliation for the undergraduate program or major in social work? CSWE presently requires that the undergraduate programs of its member institutions be either in the college of arts and sciences or in the graduate school of social work.[16] The intention is to assure a congenial setting in which the program can develop along the lines suggested earlier in this paper.

There are questions still to be answered: When there is a school of social work in the university, should it be required that the undergraduate social work program be housed in it? If so, how then can the liberal nature of the program be assured? Are there numerous other possible administrative settings than the arts and sciences—often multiprofessional in character such as schools of urban study, community services, or allied health services—where the undergraduate social work department might be located advantageously? Will the college of arts and sciences continue to be receptive to a program that has as its objective professional preparation for employment?

RECOGNITION OF THE BSW

Educational institutions are concerned with two groups of consequences set in motion when their students complete a baccalaureate program that has preparation for employment as its objective. The first of these is related to the kinds of job opportunities and rewards that will be open to graduates of the program. The second relates to ways in which the program fits into further education the graduate must have if he is to become a full-fledged professional.

When an educational institution sets up an undergraduate curriculum in social work with the object of employment in the field, it is necessarily sensitive to the opportunities that are open to its graduates.

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[16] *Undergraduate Programs in Social Welfare: A Guide to Objectives, Content, Field Experience and Organization*, p. 21, Appendix. The new requirements for constituent membership that will become effective July 1, 1971, are not as explicit concerning the location of the program but emphasize the requisite broad liberal base.

Will they be favored for social work positions over graduates without social work education? Will civil service and merit systems as well as voluntary agencies place them to advantage in job classifications? If not, why not? Will there be appropriate salary rewards? What are the tasks and kinds of responsibilities that will be assigned to BSWs? Does the undergraduate educational preparation fulfill the agencies' expectations? Are BSWs included in the state licensing system (where such exist) for social workers?

Educational institutions are pressing social work agencies and organizations for answers to these questions. It is encouraging that many studies are being carried on at present under a wide variety of auspices that aim at trying to discover how to differentiate levels of tasks and what the educational expectations are for the various levels.[17] So far the profession has been able to attack only bits and pieces of the larger problem of task differentiation and definition. This situation may in fact continue, since social work must respond to the new and ever changing needs of a vigorous, rapidly evolving society.

For this reason those concerned with education for social work must join those concerned with practice in developing methods whereby the performance of graduates from different educational levels can be assessed. The task ahead is to gather more empirical evidence on the use that should be made of each member of the social work team to assure more effective service delivery. The profession must be prepared to undertake continuous study if it is to make the best use of manpower in the wide range of social work tasks that are now or may be supported by society.

LINKAGES BETWEEN BACHELOR'S AND MASTER'S DEGREES

A college or university also wants to know whether the social work baccalaureate is, in fact—or indeed even in theory—to be considered a part of the continuum in professional social work education. Is the undergraduate sequence or major to be a prerequisite of admission to a graduate school of social work or, if not required, is special recognition and advance placement to be given to students who have completed such a program? How does the graduate curriculum take into account content that has been included in the undergraduate program? Complaints from students indicate that too frequently there is much overlap. Graduate schools must come to recognize that there are substantial implications for content at the graduate level when undergraduate social work curricula have been developed on the model suggested earlier. Daly has summarized some of the effects that can be anticipated:

> If undergraduate education can provide the basic knowledge in the bio-behavioral and social sciences, social economics, social history, and philosophy, much of the existing curriculum in the professional school will be outmoded. Special pre-entry courses might be developed for candidates who lack undergraduate prepara-

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[17] *See* reports on research findings prepared for this workshop as exhibits of the kinds of studies being made.

> tion, but much of the content now included in the professional curriculum would no longer be necessary.[18]

It seems reasonable to accept the idea that at each level of higher education—associate, baccalaureate, and graduate—the learning experiences presented should be built on the foundation of the previous level. This assumes that educational linkages should be planned from the bottom up, a point of view that has not met with much popularity.[19] Numerous graduate schools of social work have taken the position that because certain content is offered at the graduate level it should not be offered in the baccalaureate or associate degree programs regardless of the intellectual and emotional readiness of the students. It might be suggested that it is more appropriate to place the burden on graduate education to build master's programs based on recognized undergraduate programs.

What do we mean by "recognized" undergraduate programs? Currently the term recognized means that a college has met the admission requirements for CSWE membership (including an educational model that follows the general outlines set up in the CSWE guide). The board and staff of CSWE have been aware of the fact that it will be necessary to establish a more rigorous plan for validating the quality of undergraduate programs before an educational continuum in social work can be effectively established. As a first step in standard-setting and quality control, the CSWE board at its April 1970 meeting approved substantial revisions in the requirements for constituent membership. The new institutional requirements, which become effective July 1, 1971, provide several significant new criteria. These include the following provisions:

1. A transcript, diploma, or some other certification will indicate that a student has completed a program in social welfare.

2. Certification can be made only of students who have completed a coherent program of courses in the foundation disciplines and in social welfare designed to meet the stated educational objectives and covering the content areas suggested in the guide.

3. Certification can be made only of students who have completed an appropriate educationally directed field experience with direct engagement in serivce activities as an integral part of the program.

4. There must be a full-time faculty member whose major responsibility is administration of the undergraduate program in social welfare, a full-time member on the undergraduate faculty with a graduate degree from an accredited school of social work, and a faculty member with a graduate degree from an accredited school of social work to teach content on social work education.[20]

These new provisions represent a step forward in assuring the quality in undergraduate programs that will provide a basis for an effective continuum in social work education. Graduate schools go through the process of accreditation to assure the quality of their programs. It is essential that a system be established that recognizes undergraduate practice-oriented programs that meet established standards.

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[18] Dorothy Bird Daly, "The Future Baccalaureate Degree Social Worker: Implications for Social Work Education," in *Continuities in Undergraduate Social Welfare Education* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1969), p. 49.

[19] *See* Marylyn Gore, "Two Goes into Four: Linkages Between Two and Four Year College Programs in Social Welfare," *Social Work Education Reporter*, Vol. 17, No. 4 (December 1969).

[20] For a complete statement of the new membership requirements, *see* Appendix B.

IN CONCLUSION—A RESERVATION

It has become so popular to promote undergraduate programs in social work or social welfare that it may be well to conclude this discussion with a note of reservation. Not all institutions should assume undergraduate education for social work as an objective. Unless a college or university has the educational, financial, and field resources to undertake a program oriented toward practice and preparation for employment, it should not establish a social work or social welfare concentration. Many institutions may take the alternative of offering one or two courses in social welfare as part of the liberal arts curriculum. Such courses can serve the valuable purpose of providing some understanding about the place of man in society; they may also serve to interest students who will wish to enter graduate social work education after receiving the baccalaureate degree.

THE FUTURE OF MASTER'S AND DOCTORAL PROGRAMS IN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

Benjamin H. Lyndon

It is probable that the era beginning with the 1970's will in retrospect prove to have been one of the more difficult ones that the social work profession will have faced in its erratic history. Increasingly rapid social changes have led to the discarding of many social institutions that have proved inadequate or too inflexible to take the strain of new ideas or new ways of treating social problems. It is undoubtedly better—however much merit these loose social forms had—for them to have been eliminated and replaced by more solidly conceived (or at least different) ways of looking at the human problem and implementing new ways of meeting it. But even if they disappear in political miasma, one cannot doubt that the philosophy behind the War on Poverty, the Peace Corps, VISTA, Office of Economic Opportunity, Community Action Programs, Model Cities, and so on will have left an impact adequate to influence new social designs for many years to come.

The symptoms of society's megrims, which we have inherited, will continue and in many instances be exacerbated as new political forces ignore or attempt to palliate them. The first years of a new philosophically different national administration make this a fact of life. Many of the Nixon Administration's political efforts, which have resulted in the fiscal emasculation of health, education, and welfare programs, have already destroyed or made ineffectual many social or health research projects and educational programs designed to help ameliorate some of the difficulties. In addition, increased "bedfellowship" with ultra-conservative politicians and office-holders in the deep South (and the rest of the country as well), the weakening and possible elimination of potentially sound governmental inventions like the OEO, and the questionable handling of civil rights problems all raise questions as to the future of even symptomatic treatment of massive social problems. These are sociopolitical negatives that must affect the social work profession.

There have been possibilities of casual treatment that may have some future impact. The President's August 1969 proposal of a Family Assistance Program, loaded with limitations though it may be, and the National Basic Income and Incentive Act (Senate 3433) have opened the door for a national guaranteed annual income that should be passed early in the seventies. With this legislation effected, the promise of the Social Security Act amendments of 1962 that enhanced the concept of counseling services for the needy should be given more reality and influence social welfare curricula at all levels.

In the economic sphere the inflation-deflation developments of the early seventies—with the potential of markedly increased unemployment as the air is let out of inflation and the implications of wage-price relationships—must also be considered an influence on the social and emotional stability of society. What will happen in the case of the Vietnam war is anybody's guess. Cessation of the war or rapid return of a high proportion of the manpower involved to a deflationary economy could add to this country's problem, especially in view of the large percentage of black soldiers. These men will be returning to limited numbers of jobs, racism (black and white), violence directed against black minority groups and white industrial complexes. What can be predicted about the development of social problems, other than that they will be escalated?

These are by no means all of the social influences that must underlie the attitudes of social work professionals contemplating what needs to be done with regard to curricular changes to prepare social workers to practice their profession. This is only one list; others would take different perspectives of the ever-increasing social problems, but the underlying principle of their influence on tomorrow's education would remain the same.

EDUCATIONAL ISSUES

Much of the unease of the times is to be seen on college and university campuses, which have been attacked so violently by a spectrum of radical activists that some institutions may be emasculated and their quality impaired. The damage has been both real and psychological in many institutions with schools of social work and undergraduate programs, among them Berkeley, Wisconsin, San Francisco State, Illinois, Columbia, New York University, and Buffalo. In some instances social work colleagues have been actively involved on opposing sides, and the same can be said for students who have been caught up in these activities. Even when there have been no overt problems, an uneasy climate, influenced by the "halo effect," appears to condition responses to many aspects of a curriculum concerned with social problems and institutional change.[1]

Responses in schools of social work to community and student unrest have taken such a variety of forms that a scholarly study of change in curricula between, say, 1965 and 1970 ought to be made if the Council on Social Work Education does not already have the data. In some places new content has been added to traditional courses, some new courses have been developed around minority group problems, new

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[1] In May 1970 this unrest exploded with expansion of the war into Cambodia and the deaths of students at Kent State and in Augusta and Jackson. It is probable that these will have a greater radicalizing influence on the campus than almost any previous events.

teaching techniques are being considered and tried, and finally, total reorganization of professional curricula is being undertaken. These range from changing a school's name (apparently to get rid of an identification with social work and social welfare) to a change in objectives, for example, "educating practitioners to solve the most damaging social problems blocking the fulfillment of whole segments of the human population." As part of this movement, it has been stated in at least one instance that it is "incumbent upon the school to produce practitioners who will espouse the causes of the poverty-stricken, alienated and excluded segments of our society who face greatest risk of adverse social conditions." [2]

The issue remains for the profession, through its agencies, professional membership organization, and accreditation body, to determine whether this type of graduate is in reality a professional social worker, since there is implied in these objectives more than the concept of advocacy that has been part of the field since its beginning. There is also some question as to the amount of professional content that can be transmitted to students who are taught means of espousing causes and solving "the most damaging social problems."

In addition to the educational problems noted, which must inevitably have an impact on what the professional of tomorrow must know, there are other issues within the schools themselves that must be resolved in some way before a clear definition of curriculum can be obtained at any level.

With the recognition and acceptance of the social damage done to minority groups—Blacks, Chicanos, Puerto Ricans, and American Indians—many institutions in the United States have adopted what amounts to an open admission policy at the undergraduate level in relation to students from these groups. Many professional schools of social work seem to have done the same, recruiting far and wide to establish their liberality. The author has no quarrel with this philosophy. One of the issues that is already being raised, however, is whether justice is being done minority and other students by modifications that have been made in programs for their education. These students are questioning educators as to whether they are really getting what has been publicized as higher education—whether in fact such "special" programs are not in themselves a possible form of discrimination when adaptations are made to meet minority group needs without controlled quality standards for education. Social work education must carefully examine its own efforts in this direction and the implications for all students who will be entering the profession at one level or another.

Another group of students who will inevitably influence the development of graduate school curricula will be those young people entering colleges and universities in the seventies who are already social-minded activists. By 1970 they were visibly present in undergraduate institutions in large numbers. A Gallup opinion study of the attitudes of college students reported in June 1969 that 51 percent had responded affirmatively when asked "if they had ever done social work" (no explanation was given as to what the study meant by "social work"). The same report found "an extraordinarily high proportion of students today are interested in going into the helping professions. . . ." Of those who expressed this general interest, 4 percent saw themselves employed in social work at the age of 40.[3]

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[2] This orientation is from the bylaws of the school of Social Work at the State University of New York at Buffalo.

A few of these students are activists of the most radical type, literally bent on the destruction of the institution of which they are a part. Most, however, appear to be quite liberal in their motivation for change through reasonable means (only rarely does one find an extremely conservative student in social welfare programs).

Among educators themselves, problems are further compounded for the curriculum designers by the developmental history of the continuum. Feldstein raises this problem when he points out that the two-year associate degree programs are seen as training technicians and the master's degree programs are clearly defined and understood as training professionals, but the baccalaureate program is an amorphous area:

> The baccalaureate program, liberally based and less visible, may find its graduates being squeezed out of the job market from both above and below. The MSWs do "professional" work; the associates, the "technical" work. The BSW is in some undefined middle ground.[4]

There can be no disagreement with this evaluation of where the field is, if doctoral programs are not considered in the continuum. However, as we move into the seventies the official recognition by the National Association of Social Workers of the baccalaureate degree as the beginning professional degree must change that picture. Since one way the new professional qualifies for membership is to graduate from a program approved by CSWE, that organization must inevitably give greater clarity to standards for the baccalaureate program. When this has been done it may well complicate education for the previously recognized professional degree, the master of social work.

FUTURE POSSIBILITIES

The 1960's contributed to social work education the concept of the continuity of education, originally conceived as levels of learning along traditional lines, that is, movement from terminal program to terminal program beginning with the 2-year associate degree and ending with the doctorate.

By the end of the decade some educators were beginning to move away from this rigid monolithic stratification to a greater flexibility of programing. This led to such experimentation as the first year of graduate education being offered in the undergraduate senior year with a

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[3] Gallup Opinion Index, Report No. 48, *Attitudes of College Students* (June 1969).

[4] Donald Feldstein, "The Associate Degree in the Social Services," this volume, p. 139.

1-year master's and the annualized "Missouri Plan."[5] At the "higher" end of the spectrum a movement downward was also initiated, as at Brandeis University, where, the capability of developing an isolated doctoral program of high quality having been proved, the decision was made to introduce a master's degree program articulated with it. Concurrent master's-doctoral programs have also been recommended and there have been a variety of linkages of 2-year human service programs with the social welfare or social work curricula of liberal arts institutions.

Contributing to the trend toward more curricular variation was the development of new kinds of content and teaching relating to society and its structures. Some of this material was drawn from the experiences of the War on Poverty programs, but other content was inserted to meet the demands of students, who either from conviction or for other reasons rejected more formalized approaches and demanded greater relevance in their education. This movement was recognized by CSWE in its provision for consultation to 2-year programs, in its creation of guidelines for baccalaureate programs, and by consultation with greater flexibility in its interpretation of standards to professional schools.

Still another phenomenon began to appear by the end of the decade —the increased substance of baccalaureate programs. Originally there was considerable restraint on the four-year undergraduate offerings. This was partly out of concern that there be little or no duplication of professional education, partly fear that professional education might be "watered down," and partly from genuine theoretical considerations about whether late adolescents and youths could learn the theory and skills required for social work practice. While the sanctions remained, a number of baccalaureate programs apparently began to disregard them and, in order to enrich their curricula, drew on material traditionally within the professional master's sequence. Thus content in social policy, community structure, human growth and behavior, research, and even "methods" (social casework in particular) began to appear at the undergraduate level.[6]

Baccalaureate graduates, who have always formed a large part of the social welfare labor force, took on a clearer identity in the latter part of the decade, both from the point of view of function on the job and by virtue of the fact that an increasing number of colleges were beginning to offer social work majors, concentrations, or sequences, or a sufficient number of courses in social welfare to make such undergraduate education increasingly visible. Again CSWE supported this development by making possible constituent membership in the council for those undergraduate programs meeting certain minimal standards. In addition the impact of this movement was more dramatically recognized by NASW when its membership approved a referendum asking whether the baccalaureate should be approved as the beginning professional degree.

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[5] The combined undergraduate-graduate experiments are under way at the schools of social work of Adelphi University, San Diego State College, and the University of Wisconsin.

[6] One small parochial college which notes that it holds membership in the "National Council on Social Work Education" states that it offers a bachelor's degree in social welfare (*See* Catherine Spalding College Bulletin 1969-71, p. 33). Its sequence begins with sociology and social problems and an orientation to social welfare in the sophomore year, followed by such courses as human growth and development, theories of personality, abnormal psychology, intergroup relations, dynamics of social group work, child welfare, family organization, social casework, and methods of social research. Field experience is given in the junior and senior years.

Curriculum-building in a continuum is a difficult theoretical process at any time. When it takes place in a murkiness of social uncertainty to which education must be related, the task is an unenviable one. It is a critical problem, however, for the portents are such that social work education must be changed and strengthened in the immediate future and with the greatest possible speed.

Rapidity of change itself is one of the major variables affecting curricula. Some 15 years ago David Dodds Henry, president of the University of Illinois, commented that it takes 10 years for a university to die and its death to be recognized and ten more when it becomes alive before the public knows it.[7] That observation was true in the period before the sixties, but the time span has been so shortened that in recent years destruction of a university can be seen taking place within an academic year. (There is yet little evidence as to the time needed for the return of acceptable viability--the processes by which the rebirth of the phoenix takes place still tend to be much slower than its demise.)

Comments have been made about many disparate influences on social work education, some known, some not so clear, and some only hypothesized. All of these create large "ifs" for the nonprophet in social work education. Because educational change in most institutions is usually so slow, however, certain assumptions may be made. There will continue to be (1) a tremendous proliferation of 2-year colleges initiating a wide variety of "human service" curricula, (2) more baccalaureate programs with social welfare concentrations tending to be more "standardized," (3) new models of professional education at the master's level with increasing change in the requirements for this degree, and (4) increased number of doctoral programs and larger enrollments of students in them.

Since this commentary is especially concerned with developments at the master's and doctoral levels, it becomes obvious that as there is greater clarity at the baccalaureate level with more universal participation in social welfare programs, the curricula at the master's and doctoral levels must inevitably be modified. Such modification will probably be accomplished in three ways: (1) additional objectives for professional education such as training for new types of performance in community action and education of teachers at the master's level in administration, management, and research at heretofore unattempted levels of competence, (2) content, new and different, from the fields of human ecology, demography, program analysis, quality control, and the like, and (3) greater selectivity of content for the learner with multiple entry points into professional education based on highly individualized education. The result must inevitably be new kinds of professional master's and doctoral programs.

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[7] Personal conversation with David Dodds Henry.

As the mix of 2-, 4-, and 6-year—and longer—graduates becomes greater, it seems obvious to assume that except in rare instances educational background will become the measure of position and responsibility. Thus if the baccalaureate social worker is on the same staff with a worker with an associate degree, it is probable that the former will supervise the latter or be assigned more complex tasks, and so on up the line. Also, if the master's degree remains by law that of the certified or registered social worker, the MSW will have both the status and presumed background to "run the show." And if the doctorate becomes the *professional* degree of the future, the DSW or Ph. D. will take over.

Some studies have already suggested a definition of role relationships. It was the consensus of Task Force IV that as roles become clearer and the educational process to achieve them settles into some kind of pattern, it is quite probable that the ultimate professional degree will be the doctorate. A number of educators in the field believe this will occur in the near future, probably within the next decade or so.[8]

The economics of professional education would support such a movement even if the attrition already occurring in the 2-year master's program did not. If the increase in knowledge and skill that will be needed to work with increasingly complex social problems in the future are added, it seems almost inevitable that more time must be spent in education and the degree considered the professional degree must be a recognition of this fact.

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[8] *See* Benjamin H. Lyndon, "The Creation of Relevance: Social Welfare Education in Continuity," in *Continuities in Undergraduate Social Welfare Education* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1968). *See also* Joseph L. Vigilante, "Legitimating Undergraduate Social Work Education: Educational-Administrative Considerations," this volume, p. 124.

LEGITIMATING UNDERGRADUATE SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION: EDUCATIONAL-ADMINISTRATIVE CONSIDERATIONS

Joseph L. Vigilante

The new emphasis on undergraduate education is helping social work adjust its place in the university. From a separated, seldom-equal position vis-á-vis other professional schools and academic divisions, it is becoming more involved in the totality of the university scene. Unlike social work, which has traditionally discouraged all but minimal preprofessional requirements, the older professions (law and medicine) have had close linkages with undergraduate education through preprofessional programs. Social work education has typically and almost exclusively been a graduate program at the master's level. With few connections at the undergraduate or doctoral levels, it has occupied a peculiar if not unique position in the academic environment. Master's programs in social work have tended not to be integrated with other graduate programs at the same university. Before 1960 few schools awarded doctoral degrees and rarely did a school offer a bachelor's degree. It is of enormous significance that most of the baccalaureate programs in social work have not been related to professional schools of social work. Neither the bachelor's nor the doctor's degrees are yet institutionally legitimate in spite of fairly clear evidence of the need to expand the social work education curriculum in both directions.

While bachelor's and doctoral programs have been in existence for almost as long as master's programs, there is still no system for their formal recognition in social work education through the accreditation process. Social work education has therefore not been in the mainstream of university education. As schools increase their offerings at both upper and lower levels, they will be thrust more directly into the infrastructure of the university and will face a myriad new administrative and curricular complications. As social work education becomes more directly a part of the continuum of all higher education (the associate degree through the doctoral degree), it will bring special goods out of its own experiences to enrich university education.

This paper speculates on the impact of undergraduate education on the social work continuum and, consequently, the impact of the social work education continuum on the university. Although the issue of curriculum-building is treated in more detail and greater depth in another paper in this volume, brief reference will be made to a specific approach to curriculum-building because of its relevance to the continuum.[1]

AN APPROACH TO CURRICULUM-BUILDING

Many points of view have been advanced on the basis for building the social work curriculum. Dea's paper with its schema for curriculum-building encompasses the many dimensions that must be included.[2] Primary emphasis should be placed on social problem analysis as the central function in curriculum development.

Social Problem Orientation

Currently considerable interest exists in the social problems that are the primary concern of social workers.[3] A more precise understanding of those problems to which social work as a professional should be addressed can be arrived at through a combined analysis of the historical mission of the profession and the current concepts and values dominating professional practice within the context of the major social problems that are rocking the system.[4] A careful examination of social work history since the middle of the 19th century, combined with a flexible analysis of current professional values, will provide a roughly defined perimeter in which social problems of concern to social work will be included. To help steer the profession away from a status quo attitude toward curriculum-building as well as practice, social problems should be emphasized in curriculum-building rather than current practice.

Perhaps the best argument for looking at problems rather than practice is one which points out that the major characteristics of our society is its rapid rate of change: the problems, their definitions, and their manifestations are in a constant state of flux. If education for social work is to be viable, it will not be able to wait until adaptations in practice are made to meet new forms of social problems. This places a sizable challenge before social work education. A way will have to be found to test new practice modalities in the schools while concurrent changing curricula are developed. Admittedly until now we have not been equipped to engage in practice in the laboratory sense. We must nevertheless attempt it.

School-administered field instruction units, social agencies, and campus clinics are already a part of many educational programs. Expanded and creative new modes of giving direct service will have to be developed by schools. Schools and their facilities will have to be involved in practice. Students and faculties together should be offering service to clients in response to problems and needs as defined with the client or client representative. The curriculum will then have to be carved out to educate to meet these problems and needs.

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[1] Kay L. Dea, "Developing Educational Objectives and Curricula for Social Work," this volume, p. 36.

[2] Ibid, p. 36.

[3] *See,* for example, Nathan E. Cohen, ed., *Social Work and Social Problems* (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1964); Alfred J. Kahn, ed., *Issues in American Social Work* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1965); Benjamin E. Youngdahl, *Social Work and Social Action,* (New York: Associated Press, 1966).

[4] The juxtaposition and relationship between historical experience and contemporary concepts and values are dealt with by Jacob Bronowski in *Science and Human Values* (New York: Harper Torchbooks, Harper & Row).

Total Manpower Approach

This paper assumes the need for and inevitability of expansion in the public sector in the 1970's with specific reference to social services. Such an expansion will create a primary concern for differential use and distribution of manpower and the education necessary for different levels of workers.[5] The social problem-social value orientation to curriculum-building will demand an analysis of curriculum-building methods through a manpower training and distribution lens. A total manpower approach logically includes concern for management and planning as well as for direct services. Thus the curriculum will have to be designed to educate planners and managers as well as practitioners. Differentiation and in the curriculum between education for direct service and education for planning and management will be discussed next.

CURRICULUM POLICY AND CONTENTS

On the basis of the research reported at the Syracuse University workshop[6] and while carefully avoiding the danger of "overselling"[7] the value of the baccalaureate degree, it seems quite clear that a good deal of present social work practice is being done in an acceptable manner in many social agencies by baccalaureate graduates. Thus the skills of professional social workers, presumably learned in master's-level programs, are presumably transmitted by MSW supervisors to bachelor's-level practitioners. A tentative inference that can be drawn is that the content of the undergraduate program in social work education might well include what is currently offered—or at least *some* of what is currently offered—in the present master's program.

Early indications (not yet validated) from an experimental program now being conducted at the Adelphi University School of Social Work are suggestive that college seniors with a major in social welfare perform at a level similar to students in the first graduate year both in classroom and fieldwork. This fact, combined with the shortage of social workers, added to the need for expansion of the public sector, suggests the nature of the differentiation in role between the baccalaureate social worker (BSW) and the graduate social worker. It is conceivable, based on this combination of phenomena, that direct service functions in professional social work can and should be performed by BSWs. The evidence does not suggest the extent to which supervisory and middle-management functions, as well as planning, research, and theory-building, can be performed by holders of baccalaureate degrees. It may be relatively safe to speculate, however, that research and theory-building, and perhaps advanced management and planning functions, will require graduate education if one assumes, as does this writer, that leadership positions in the profession will require both a knowledge of practice and advanced academic knowledge of planning and administration.

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[5] "Public sector" is used in the economic sense. It refers to those goods and services that are produced outside the "profit economy" and it includes, for example, both public tax-supported and voluntary nonprofit social welfare institutions, including education. *See* as an example of this use of the term Eli Ginsberg, Dale L. Heistand, and Beatrice Reubens, *The Pluralistic Economy* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965).

[6] Claire Anderson and Thomas Carlsen, "The Midway Project on the Utilization of Public Welfare Personnel; "Thomas P. Melican, "The Catholic Social Services of Wayne County Study on Staff Utilization in the Foster Family care Division;" Thomas L. Briggs and Michael Herrera, "The National Association of Social Workers Study on Utilization of Personnel in Mental Hospitals;" Lenore Rivesman, "The Family Service Association of America's Study on Use of Social Work Assistants in Service to the Aged; "Virginia Karl, "The Veterans Administration's Study on the Use of Social Work Associates;" Donald E. Johnson and Ellen P. Lebowitz, "The Syracuse University Research Project on the Complexity-Responsibility Scale. From the companion manuscript, "Manpower Research on Utilization of Baccalaureate Social Workers: Implications for Education."

[7] It is the opinion of the writer that Task Force IV as well as all workshop participants are especially indebted to Benjamin Lyndon for his caution against "overselling" the bachelor's degree—a warning particularly appropriate for a professional group charged with analyzing that degree's impact on the continuum.

Although there is little research evidence comparing the performance BSWs and graduate workers, the implication seems to be clear that BSW's perform well in those social service functions that have been described by social work theorists as "environmental manipulation" and "emotional support." Briefly, these tasks appear to include referral functions, home-visiting, discussion of emotional problems on a level that only rarely deals with unconscious or preconscious material, advice-giving, foster home-finding, various forms of grass-roots community organization having to do primarily with goal identification, and a variety of activities such as group organization and group identification. Many of the tasks listed have traditionally been seen as requiring education at the master's level. It is interesting that seldom is the BSW identified with the task of psychotherapeutic counseling in the social casework sense, group therapy in the dynamic sense, or more advanced and subtle forms of community organization involving the interrelated processes of working with groups, intergroups, and representatives of groups.[8]

Although there seems to be a role for the BSW in many traditional social work tasks, he appears not to have been tested in the more sophisticated and advanced areas of social work practice. Perhaps this is because supervisors have not seen (or have not wanted to see) potential for more advanced functioning. At the same time it should be noted that therapeutic counseling has been performed by individuals without formal academic education for this task, but who have had intensive training.[9] The fact, however, that one can be trained as a psychotherapist outside the professional schools or university setting is not, per se, an argument for agencies to undertake such training. The question of how quickly and efficiently this can be done (in or out of the professional school) must be taken into consideration. Also, the importance of education is doing research and using research findings must be considered.

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[8] W. I. Newstetter, "The Social Intergroup Work Process," Charles Fink et al., *The Field of Social Work* (4th ed.; New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1964), pp. 509–511.

[9] A report of an experience in training for counseling tasks individuals who have not had the benefit of formal education appears in Margaret Rioch et al., "National Institute of Mental Health Pilot Study in Training Mental Health Counselors," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, Vol. 33, No. 4 (July 1963), pp. 678–679.

The reports of the researchers referred to earlier, combined with the probable future demands of society in the area of social planning and the management of human resources, suggest that the typical master's degree education is becoming increasingly less appropriate for both current and future practice needs. Briefly, the 2-year master's program may over educate students who will practice in most social agencies, as typified by the six settings used in the research reported, and may undereducate for highly intensive psychotherapeutic functioning as well as for the systems-oriented, demographically sensitive, ecologically influenced program analysis function of future human resources planners and policy-makers.[10]

PROFESSIONAL VERSUS ARTS AND SCIENCES EDUCATION

The suggested distinctions among levels of education do not require that undergraduate education be identified as vocational, technical (or occupational) education. Although vocational training in the university should not have especially negative connotations (it is in reality the very raison d'etre of the American university), such an identification has been the kiss of death for undergraduate social work education. Recently there has been greater acceptance of undergraduate education for social work, but the argument as to whether it is technical education or arts and sciences education has been resurrected on many campuses.

The distinction between arts and sciences education and professional education, as they have been known traditionally, is no longer valid, if indeed it ever was. It is conceivable that professional education at the undergraduate level can provide as good, if not better, liberal education as that which is usually identified as liberal arts education. The use of professional education as a medium for a liberal education is a matter of selectively exploiting offerings in the arts, sciences, and humanities and recognizing the relationship between professional social work practice and the humanistic knowledge necessary to learn any profession properly. Maslach goes further. He suggests that professional education can enrich the liberal arts curriculum.[11] Social workers and arts and sciences faculties together might benefit from recalling that during the past thirty years [12] liberal arts occupied a position in the university hierarchy with respect to their lack of "humanistic content" similar to that of professional education.

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[10] Joseph L. Vigilante, "Urban Crisis and Violence," *Applied Social Studies*, Vol. 1 (London, England: Pergamon Press, 1969), pp. 171–179; and Charles R. DeCarlo, "Perspectives on Technology," in Eli Ginsberg, ed., *Technology and Social Change* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1964), pp. 8–43.

[11] George S. Maslach, "The Reorganization of Educational Resources," *Daedalus*, Vol. 96, No. 4 (Fall 1967).

[12] Charles Frankel, "Professional Education as University Education," *Social Service Review*, Vol. 32, No. .. (Sept. 1958), pp. 234–246.

It is time we experimented with professional education as arts and sciences education. The arts and sciences and the humanities have to do with the stuff of life. They deal with the pathos as well as the aesthetic components of living. There is no more socially significant or socially valuable education than that which is to be found in the great literature of all societies. Confucius, Dickens, Shaw, Dostoevsky, Tolstoy, Shakespeare, the Greek playwright all dealt with social conflict—social stress or human psychosocial dilemmas, if you will. Teaching professional know-how to deal with social conflicts and social stress (the stuff of life) rather than deliberalizing or dehumanizing academic content can *enrich* it. Thus professional education at the undergraduate level should have positive effects on liberal education in the university. With increased recognition of the needs of the public sector, the development of new educational linkages between academic disciplines will be required. Social work's greater integration into the mainstream of the university via the continuum will permit opportunities to participate in and contribute to the new professional service models that are bound to spring up.

It is apparent that there is a slowly mounting body of suggestive evidence that a good deal of what is now graduate education in the foundation knowledge areas as well as the social work methods can be taught at the undergraduate level.[13] Should the evidence prove relatively conclusive, the graduate curriculum at all levels will require new inputs of knowledge. Recognizing the probable need to continue a high-level clinically oriented program for social workers at the graduate level, a large part of the graduate curriculum will probably be directed toward education for leadership, planning, research, and management of human systems as well as toward theory-building in the human services field. New findings in the social sciences related to new understanding of social ecology, the computer sciences, bureaucratic theory, and organizational theory will probably be the knowledge keystones of this part of graduate work.[14] If it is to fill some of the gaps in contemporary programs for the education of social planners and administrators, the social science theory basis for graduate education in social work will continue to require close interconnections with psychosocial theories as developed by social workers. This knowledge should be offered within a frame of reference defined primarily by the value base of social work as a unique and essential contribution to an advanced curriculum that will prepare graduates to deal with the complexities of widely expanded human service systems.[15]

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[13] The continuation of a good deal of traditional content of social work education is necessary, in the opinion of the writer, because of the unique contribution of the psychosocial approach to problem-solving that has been developed by casework theorists, e.g., Gordon Hamilton, Florence Hollis, Helen Harris Perlman, Virginia Robinson, and Herbert Aptekar.

[14] S. Dillon Ripley and Helmut K. Buechner, "The Reorganization of Environmental Resources," *Daedalus*, Vol. 96, No. 4 (Fall 1967).

The advanced practitioner must also be "educated." Just as professional education at the undergraduate level should not be divorced from arts and sciences education, so must specialized education at the advanced graduate level require an arts-and-sciences-humanities orientation. Curriculum at the graduate level can be determined largly by the interest of the student, but he will require courses in the arts, sciences, and humanities. As arts and sciences programs will be enhanced by professional programs, the latter will be enriched by arts-and-sciences-humanities inputs. No substitute for this kind of education has yet been found to provide a broad-gauged professional with potential for creativity in practice.

A practical problem will be the resurgence of the DSW-Ph. D. dilemma. Professional schools offering professional curricula should award the professional degree. Quite apart from the question of the meaning of the Ph. D. and its appropriateness for professional education, the intramural conflicts it can create when offered in a professional school might well be avoided. Social workers who desire to earn the Ph. D. should have relatively easy entry to such programs because of the professional-liberal arts combination in their education at the bachelor's and master's levels. The writer does not view the assumption that professional arts and sciences education can blend together as contradictory to his observation that the DSW and the Ph. D. are the exclusive province of the respective separate divisions of the university. Educational content can be similar but not the same; primary educational goals for professional and arts and sciences programs should remain different.

UNIVERSITY RELATIONSHIPS

Legitimating social work education at the bachelor's level is likely to create some repercussions in the relationship between the school of social work and other divisions of the university. Social work educators should be prepared for challenges from arts and sciences curriculum committes as they begin to offer degrees at the bachelor's level. The fear that students will be attracted away from other departments will be present; the timeworn questions as to whether professional learning at the bachelor's level provides an "education" will be raised. The question of permitting electives in the undergraduate social work program for non-social work majors will be debated. Probably the bachelor of social work degree will be more often challenged than will be the bachelor of science (or arts) degree in social work (or social welfare).

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[15] In spite of increased evidence of value conflicts in practice, the value base of social work probably remains as the key element among others (knowledge and skill) in defining the profession. See, for example, Herbert Aptekar, *An Intercultural Exploration: Universals and Differences in Social Work Values, Functions and Practice* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1967); Werner W. Boehm, "The Role of Values in Social Work," *Jewish Social Service Quarterly*, Vol. 26, No. . . (June 1950), pp. 429–438; Gordon Hamilton, *Theory and Practice of Social Casework* (2nd ed., rev, (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951); (Muriel W. Pumphrey, *The Teaching of Values and Ethics in Social Work Education* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1962).

Associated with these challenges will be the question of the degree of curriculum autonomy that undergraduate social work programs may enjoy. To what extent will or should the university faculty have a right to review and/or approve undergraduate professional curricula? Can an argument be made for vertical curriculum control by the social work faculty in all aspects of the curriculum under the school's jurisdiction? To what extent should non-social work faculty be included on curriculum committees of the school of social work? Should the major be located in a social work department, in the arts and sciences faculty, or in a professional school of social work?

It is not sufficient to acknowledge that the university is ultimately responsible for curriculum control and then to point out that professional education has always enjoyed more autonomy than "academic" education and therefore has the right to delegate control. The professional educator is responsible not only to the university structure, but to the professional community as well. Legitimate and meaningful participation in curriculum-building by the professional community must be assured. There will be a problem in balancing the value of the profession's autonomy against the value of integration with the university system.[16] Autonomy is essential to preserve the identity of the profession and to enable the transmission of the profession's own knowledge to its practitioners without contamination by those who are ignorant of its application in practice. At the same time, however, arts and sciences input into social work education will become increasingly essential in order to broaden the theoretical base of practice.

Imbalance in the direction of administrative integration with the university has not always resulted in enriched curricula as exemplified by many departments of social work under the jurisdiction of arts and sciences curriculum committees. Quite often these curricula remain as professionally myopic and monolithic as the most narrowly designed curricula in professional schools. Established social work education on a continuum from the undergraduate level through the doctoral program will probably tend to exacerbate the problem of balancing integration with autonomy. The following questions will have to be wrestled with: Who will be responsible for awarding the bachelor of arts or the bachelor of arts in social welfare degree? For that matter, which degree should be offered? Will the program be located in the school of social work or the college of arts and sciences? Which division of the university will have ultimate responsibility for administering the program? Although these are mentioned as problems, the observations made previously about the potential for an enriched arts and sciences curriculum become possible through a professional in culturation. If these are bridged at the undergraduate level, the possibilities for achieving similar linkages at the graduate level may be enhanced.

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[16] The problems of administrative relationships between schools of social work and university administrations are well identified by Avis Kristenson in "Autonomy in the Administrative Relationships of Schools of Social Work in the United States to Their Parent Institutions," *Journal of Education for Social Work*, Vol. 4, No. 1 (Spring 1961), p. 21.

The introduction of undergraduate social work programs has the additional potential of bringing a greater "humanitarian" influence to the "humanistic" curriculum. The use of daily professional social work activities as operational examples of humanistic philosophical postulates offers a heretofore unavailable realism to the arts, sciences, and humanities. This can, of course, take place only when the humanitarian value base is apparent in the curriculum and in the "style" of the school of social work. We should be candid and cautious in our preaching about the desirability and the application of humanitarianism in professional education and practice, for to claim humanitarianism as the value base of a profession is to assume a great deal. We must do so, but exposure of social work education to the entire university system may force adherence to the value base if indeed it has been neglected.

Recognition of the bachelor's program suggests the desirability of all social work programs at all levels having structural affiliations with each other. If it is not feasible to provide a combination of bachelor's, master's, and doctoral programs in a single university (probably the preferable model), it is conceivable that schools could develop a continuum of social work education through a consortium arrangement among several colleges and universities. Two or three institutions, one giving the bachelor's degree and others giving the master's and/or doctorate, or any combination of universities and programs, could provide the continuum. Faculties, students, and courses could be interrelated. Communication among universities might thereby be enhanced. The high cost of the total continuum would not have to be borne by a single institution. Cross-university arrangements will also present opportunities for creative curriculum-building. The consortium of programs at the various levels creates additional special problems, however, having to do with different requirements for credits and degrees as well as faculty qualification, tuition costs, and the like.

Although social work practice requires professional skills most efficiently achieved through formal education, we must finally recognize that some of these skills can be acquired by some people through experience. As associate, baccalaureate, and doctoral programs are developed, it will be essential that means be devised to enable entry into the programs at all levels. Useful life experiences and employment equivalents will have to be recognized and credited. This is doubly imperative if the social work profession accepts special responsibility for providing educational opportunities to those in society who have been deprived of them. A career ladder program built into the regular continuum in social work education is clearly indicated. Universities have been doggedly resistant to career ladders, probably because they are controlled by arts and sciences and humanities faculties who tend to be staunch defenders of the admissions and performance trappings of academe and who usually wield power in the university. The inference is self-evident. It is possible that the continuum in social work education, with its direct linkages in the public sector, can assist universities in efforts to participate in developing career ladder programs if social work education has something to give to the arts and sciences curriculum. Mutual association between the social work faculty and arts and sciences faculties will enhance the development of a strong and positive image of social work education on the campus. The initiative will have to be taken by social work—we have waited too long to be asked.

ADMISSIONS AND RECRUITMENT POLICIES

Career ladder programs in which social work education is intimately involved can provide an added source of recruitment for the profession. In addition the continuum will open possibilities for horizontal admission at all levels of education. With the bachelor's degree program a part of the continuum, and with its potential relationship to career ladders, the necessity for a two-track educational system seems inevitable. Those beginning social work education at the bachelor's level will presumably have a greater advantage at the graduate level compared to those entering at the graduate level. This will be especially true if, as has been suggested by this paper, much of the present graduate content is transferred to the undergraduate level. The establishment of a two-track program in schools of social work also suggests exploration of the relationship between tracks. Does there have to be a numerical balance between the tracks? What will the relative balance be between the more rapid (innovative) track as against the more conventional track? In the graduate programs are there implications for sectioning students according to track? All these questions are related to a single basic administrative problem, namely, how much innovation can an institution handle at one time given the need for a degree of administrative stability?

The question of equivalence of credits among schools becomes important at the undergraduate level.[17] This implies the need for standardization as against innovation is being faced now in most graduate schools. Its extension to the undergraduate area will create additional challenges.

The school that offers the entire continuum from the bachelor's to the doctoral degree will have some special problems. There is the potential danger of a monolithic education for students. Will the learning experience be relatively narrow for the student who has followed the continuum at all levels in one school? To what extent and how should crossing over from one institution to another be encouraged? The advantages of wider faculty exposure, different philosophical emphases, and so on are self-evident. It should be a matter of deep concern to educators that opportunities for transfer from one university to another be provided with as much ease as possible.

There is at this time the possibility that applications for admission to schools of social work will decrease in the immediate future as a result of the cutbacks in federal and private funding. If social work enrollments reach a plateau whereby competition for students increases, will schools be reluctant to venture into new levels of education? On the other hand, if social work education continues to be a "seller's market," will an undergraduate degree or an undergraduate major in social work (or social welfare) become a de facto requirement for admission to graduate school? Would this be desirable? The continual encouragement of non-social work majors to enter at the graduate level may have important implications for recruitment as well as enrichment, challenge, cross-fertilization, and different dimensions of consumption by the learner. There should be a means of enabling non-social work majors to attain equivalent experience or to demonstrate that they do not need it in order to advance in the program.

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[17] The word "equivalence" is used rather than "transfer" in order to avoid problems of exact matching of credits with courses by numbers of semester hours and to enable comparisons of course content rather than hours.

Schools of social work have not usually burdened university administrators with demands for fellowship and scholarship support because of the excellent support that has been forthcoming from public and voluntary organizations. But emphasis on undergraduate education may change this condition. To what extent will schools be able to obtain the necessary share of university undergraduate scholarships and stipends to enable them to compete with other schools and departments and professional schools for candidates? Moreover, to what extent will it be *necessary* to obtain outside funding at the undergraduate level to vitalize and maintain an undergraduate program? The possible negative impact of undergraduate programs on funding sources for graduate programs must also be considered. There is already some evidence that as undergraduate education for social work has become more acceptable in the professional and nonprofessional communities that support social work education, funding for graduate education has begun to suffer.

Undergraduate education for the professions is more expensive than arts and sciences education, requiring more intensive advisement, field instruction, and seminars. Costs will be a serious problem but should not be viewed as deterrents to expansion of undergraduate education.

CERTIFICATION AND ACCREDITATION

As undergraduate education is formally introduced, there must be some form of curriculum accreditation for purposes of standardizing curricula as well as ensuring adequate educational content. It would seem essential that an accrediting system be established immediately in order to enable creative use of the continuum. Closely related to accreditation is certification by legal means. In seven States throughout the United States social workers are either certified or licensed.[18] The advantages of the protection of clients through certification are obvious. Certification at the bachelor's degree level should be encouraged. To maintain high professional standards through certification, undergraduate programs might be required to have an affiliation with a graduate school of social work either in their own university or in another.[19] There would seem to be no doubt that as more social workers are educated at the bachelor's level (and earlier) and occupy positions in which they shoulder considerable responsibility, there should be an increased demand for their certification. Although identification of the doctorate in social work as the terminal degree (as recommended by Task Force IV) avoids the problem of identifying where professional education starts, it is conceivable that legal certification processes under the jurisdiction of state governments will require identification of the first *professional* degree. It would seem advisable to identify the professional degree at the lowest possible level so as to include as many practicing social workers as possible under professional and legal controls.

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[18] The seven states that have legal registration for social workers with master's degrees are California, Illinois, New York, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, South Carolina, and Virginia. Of those, Illinois, Oklahoma, and Virginia also register social workers with a bachelor's degree.

FACULTY

The establishment of undergraduate education has wide implications for faculty status, role, and distribution. Who shall teach social work at the undergraduate level? Should a degree in social work be required of classroom and field instructors? If the program is to teach social work practice, it would seem logical that the instructors be professionally educated social workers. Many individuals can teach about social work without benefit of the professional degree. Given the difficulty in staffing all parts of all undergraduate programs with professional social workers, the need for professional social work supervision of undergraduate education is doubly important. Consortia between graduate schools of social work and undergraduate programs in other universities might enable the maximum exploitation of scarce manpower.

Should a distinction be made between undergraduate and graduate social work faculty? Should some faculty members teach only undergraduate classes and others only graduate classes? There are administrative answers to these questions, since in some schools one model will be administratively easier than the other. More important are the educational implications. There is generally a distinction between the teaching and advisement load of undergraduate and graduate faculties. Is this advisable when the undergraduate program is a professional program? To what extent is it possible for undergraduate professional faculty to carry a teaching load similar to that carried by faculty of the graduate school? If the teaching loads are the same, the possibility of desirable integration between undergraduate and graduate faculties is increased.

Undergraduate programs require a wide variety of course offerings outside social work. This condition lends itself to the possibility of joint appointments between the social work school and academic departments in the university. Desirable cross-fertilization between social work and the arts and sciences can be facilitated in this manner. Certain arts and sciences courses have been designed especially for students in professional schools—for example, biology or science for nurses, on the assumption that the professional nursing student at the undergraduate level does not need the same kind of biology course as the biology major. Should this pattern be duplicated in undergraduate schools of social work?

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[19] The writer is aware of the point of view held by some members of the profession that legal certification and licensing are restrictive and discriminative against those who are engaged in social work without benefit of minimal formal education. The problem is not one of certification, but how to examine for certification. Means of testing performance must be devised that will accurately reflect ability in spite of lack of formal education.

The faculty of the school of social work may provide a variety of useful service courses to the liberal arts program of the university. Quite apart from those courses that are offered within the social welfare or social work major, should the school of social work be developing special courses in "applied social sciences" such as "professional methods of working with narcotics addicts" or other specialized courses stemming from professional practice?

STUDENTS

Student involvement in the administrative and academic affairs of the social work is as common today as it is in undergraduate colleges.[20] The legitimation of the undergraduate social work program will create some problems regarding the manner of student participation in the various university academic programs, including that of social work. Should students in the undergraduate program be identified as students in the school of social work or as students in the college of arts and sciences? How are they likely to identify themselves? Can they identify with both?

There are some practical problems as well. There will be student representation on university governing bodies from undergraduate departments as well as from graduate schools. How will this be worked out when undergraduate and graduate social work programs exist in the same university? What will be the nature of the student organization? There are probably some real advantages to the involvement of undergraduate students in organizational activities with graduate students. How can this be done? What should the relationship be between the student bodies? Should there be vertical integration between them at the undergraduate and graduate levels as well as horizontal integration with other departments, schools, and colleges in the university at the graduate and undergraduate levels. Further, to what extent should undergraduates be represented on faculty-student committees? Must they wait until they are graduate students? It is possible that undergraduates will outnumber graduates in the schools in a few years. What should be the relative distribution of undergraduate and graduate students?

Is it valid and what potential is there for graduate students to obtain teaching experience at the undergraduate level? Some schools are already experimenting with second-year students as teaching assistants in lower-level undergraduate classes. The continuum might well help us to develop larger numbers of faculty for schools of social work than we have been able to in the past.

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[20] Lillian Ripple, "Students' Rights and Responsibilities in Graduate Schools of Social Work; Survey of Current Practice," *Social Work Education Reporter*, (June 1969), pp. 48–50.

SUMMARY

This paper has dealt with a variety of implications and questions that are raised by the concept of a continuum of social work education from the undergraduate through the doctoral level. Although most questions are unanswered here, most are answerable given an organized, disciplined research approach. The little research and experiential evidence available seems to indicate that legitimating the continuum for professional social work education has potential for enriching both the profession and the university. Continuing systemic analysis is required of the impact of the undergraduate program on the continuum and in turn the impact of the continuum on the school and the university. Development of the social work curriculum from the undergraduate level through the doctoral level will create academic waves. This in itself may be a major contribution of social work education to higher education.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE CONTINUUM FOR AGENCIES

Claire R. Lustman

A well-planned continuum for social work education extending from the community college to the doctoral levels should contribute to social service delivery in the decades ahead. With social problems burgeoning in an increasingly complex society and growing manpower shortages in the helping professions, current efforts to enrich the preparation of social workers at all levels can support social planning designed to meet the needs of troubled and ill persons more adequately. Social agencies, as well as the prospective consumers of social services that will be offered by "graduates" of the continuum, have a great stake in the effectiveness of curriculum-building.

The evolving continuum in social work calls for genuine creativity, especially on the part of educators in agencies as well as in schools. Exciting possibilities open up for replanning social services, rethinking practice, reallocating personnel resources, and involving social agency administrations with the academic community in a more productive way. In the best traditions of the profession, the aspiration is to have the profession's most treasured values characterize this process.

Never before have there been so many forces constraining social workers to pay attention to developing a useful education continuum. Erupting social issues of the day, urgent problems with which people are coping individually and in groups, cry out for improved social service delivery systems, which in turn require more enlightened and better prepared personnel. The enriched scholastic preparation of students at every level and their growing intellectuality tend to outmode current curricular and training approaches. The organizations representing social work practice and education are changing.

The National Association of Social Workers for the first time is admitting to regular membership persons holding a baccalaureate degree with an approved social work sequence and has established an associate category for the baccalaureate in any field with current social work employment. The Council on Social Work Education has established guidelines for baccalaureate and community college sequences. Individual schools are upgrading their curricula. Agencies are reexamining their practice in the light of the emergence of baccalaureate social workers (BSW's) as well as the changing master's social work sequences. Consumers of social services are also becoming increasingly discriminating about the quality of social services offered. Colleagues from other disciplines in a similar state of flux are both observing and influencing what happens in social work. Gaps in services to people resulting from the changing functioning of social workers are noted and ultimately may be filled by related disciplines also sponsoring "new" career patterns.

There is also observable a give and take within the social work continuum. The baccalaureate social work program may appropriately absorb most, if not all, of the traditional functions that the advancing master's program is no longer fully encompassing. In the dynamic manpower market of the helping disciplines, this resource within the social work profession should be more fully exploited, for there is no assurance that essential social work values and competence can satisfactorily be translated into the new multidisciplinary positions being established. In any event there is still a documented need for the categories of social work technologist (community college graduate) and BSW.

Social agencies also have to consider and work out ways to help make the continuum work. This paper attempts to examine some of the implications for agencies, especially those allied with universities and colleges, in offering field instruction for undergraduate students and related collaborative plans desired to implement undergraduate social work education. Other aspects considered are implications for in-service training for career development. Some of the issues that arise when agencies implementing the continuum use their facilities for this purpose and some of the opportunities resutling from their having access to the array of manpower thus provided are also alluded to. In effect this paper attempts to some extent to bridge the content area covered by the educational task forces on the one hand and by the manpower utilization task force on the other.

That the addition of qualified BSW's to the labor market will have a resounding effect on health and welfare agencies of pronounced value to their clientele, their staffs, and their services has been loudly proclaimed. It is yet to be conclusively demonstrated that the differentially educated bachelor of social work performs better than the bachelor of arts with a liberal arts background. Many agencies are resisting accepting the differentiated baccalaureate until his superiority over the undifferentiated baccalaureate is conclusively established. Curriculum-building projects and efforts in this area by schools and their faculties are characterized by the expectation that the possessor of a bachelor's degree in social work will be prepared to serve responsibility in positions in social work agencies in many, if not all, fields of practice. The introduction of such purposefully educated personnel should invite quite a different response than the baccalaureate graduates who have been available for employment by agencies heretofore. Although carefully selected, such personnel all too frequently have had minimal preliminary exposure to the field of social work. Their turnover has been relatively high, their need for in-service training fairly extensive, and their continued supervision necessary, adding to the expense of retaining their services. Yet even under these adverse circumstances, studies that will be reported in the second volume of this publication tend to document their value not only in terms of providing services, but also in becoming a promising source of recruitment for graduate schools.

The fashioning of a relevant curriculum for BSW's could provide important linkages—now either missing or weak—in the social service delivery system and in the personnel coverage now in existence. As the decade of the seventies begins, most agencies are faced with the reality that conducting business as usual means too little, too late—an open invitation for the scrap-heap of good intentions and obsolescence. Today's world requires radical revision and refocusing of the social work role. Dynamic prevention of social deterioration, new initiatives in providing comprehensive welfare planning, and expertise in effecting seriously needed social changes are sought and accepted as realizable as never before in recorded history. This search for human improvement will be enhanced by the enthusiasm, energy, and idealism of the age group that is most characteristic of the undergraduate student body. Older students—aged 25-40—including disadvantaged persons, can also contribute much from their life experiences in choosing to study social work at the baccalaureate level. Such students with diversified backgrounds will bring much to the persons encountered during the course of their tenure in the agencies. Clients of all groups can enjoy and benefit from their perspective. In turn, the students need to get to know and become accustomed to persons of all age levels. Likewise, in their meeting and working with other agency staff members, including students of other ages both at the community college and graduate levels, varying and different kinds of generational and cultural gaps are bridged with resultant enrichment of agency practice. This is especially true in agencies where the bulk of positions have been occupied by graduate social workers, many of them middle-aged. In turn, graduate social workers, when secure in their own practice, not only can recognize what it is reasonable to expect of the BSW, but can offer him the instruction he requires as a learner and the guidance he should have in preparation for entrance into the profession.

It is difficult to generalize for all social agencies, since their resources, characteristics, and practice vary greatly and for valid reasons. Initial resistance to the BSW on the part of graduate social workers can be anticipated in most situations. Yet it is also to be expected that with the introduction of BSW's well prepared for practice, support would be forthcoming from agency personnel with due cognizance of other agency commitments for service and research as well as education and training. A pilot program demonstrating the functioning of the BSW is one of the most effective ways of enabling agency staff to experience differential use of manpower and to adapt its program of services and training accordingly.

THE AGENCY AS AN EDUCATIONAL RESOURCE

The entrance of an agency into undergraduate social work education should not be undertaken lightly. Such a course mandates an overall review of agency objectives, program, staffing, and resources. Such consideration includes an insightful assessment of the professional practice involved and of the knowledge inherent in providing services, as well as of changes desired. Agency experience with BSW's on the job is of great value in determining whether undergraduate students should be accepted for instruction, as well as in planning the content of their field learning. Agencies already using baccalaureate manpower have been in a position to learn what responsibilities can advantageously be delegated to such personnel. This knowledge, when undergraduates are accepted for fieldwork, is invaluable, especially if coupled with a command of educational methodology. If available, data from the demonstration or "trial" project conducted to introduce use of the BSW in the agency are a source of information for planning the undergraduate practicum with the college. Other factors affecting the performance of the BSW—such as the availability and kind of in-service training received, the quality of supervision, the nature of the assignment, and the collaboration called for with professionals, other disciplines, and indigenous workers—should be evaluated. On the basis of such a sound determination can be made as to the acceptance of undergraduate social work students in the agency.

Agencies training master's students will naturally draw on their background in graduate education in developing undergraduate field instruction in social work. Those also training graduate students can with advantage apply what has been learned about teaching, agency-school communications, and conceptualization in helping to build undergraduate programs. Dilution of the graduate practicum for undergraduate consumption should be avoided. Rather, new and more fitting patterns should be fashioned for the advancement of the education of the "junior" students in agencies.

Concomitantly, with rising acceptance of the BSW in rendering direct services, graduate social workers increasingly are assuming assignments of a supervisory, consultative, or administrative nature fairly soon after graduation. Field experience in these methods is beginning, with increasing frequency, for master's students. In some instances agencies offering practice for both levels of students have arranged to accept graduate students in such specialized placements at the same time as they have started to assign client cases to undergraduates. Selected second-year graduate students have also supervised undergraduate students under the preceptorship of their field instructors. Such experiments, if carefully conducted, afford good learning opportunities for all the students involved. The continuum obviously offers wider latitude and extends the range of choices for optimal timing in tapping the various areas of knowledge, skills, and competence for student work in the field.

Agencies—even those heavily invested in education—exist primarily to provide services, whereas schools—even those closely related to practice—exist for teaching. The requirements of affiliated schools, even under the most favorable circumstances for collaboration, must frequently be reconciled with other priorities that have legitimate claims on agency resources. Such conflicts are surmountable through appropriate communications and intervention at the administrative and supervisory levels. Also, agency personnel teaching at the school, college-employed student supervisors, and faculty members acting as consultants to the agency have been genuine facilitators of continuing collaboration and interchange, even in such aspects as curriculum-building and practicum-planning. Fuller involvement of the agency-school educator in developing undergraduate sequences would enhance the intrinsic value of the total scholastic offering. Their presence on faculty councils and committees would lead to their democratization, as does student representation. The position of the agency field instructor when assimilated into the school faculty becomes far more tenable and productive as a contributing force in the educational process. Too often faculty members have in the past worked out basic ideological and planning matters in closed sessions. Only after the curriculum is a *fait accompli* is it disclosed to agency personnel. Even though intended otherwise, revisions to overcome reservations or introduction of new ideas from field faculty are discouraged in this process. The latter at times feel the only option for them is to rubber-stamp the new curriculum in an effort not to slow down or interfere with the school's efforts to progress.

From an educational stance, the issue remains of how to translate agency experience into the curriculum at the appropriate place in the continuum. Dissatisfaction voiced by the academic community stems from the lack of input by practitioners into master's course content. This is matched by criticism from practitioners in the field—agency field instructors and administrators in particular—as to the lack of opportunity for them to take part in curriculum-building. Both observations have some validity. Use of the agency field instructor has generally consisted of admitting him to the educational establishment only when he is essential, affording him varying degrees of orientation to the total school situation. Both agencies and schools must be willing to budget more staff time for such purposes. In other words, a mutual education need exists. At the same time as practitioners should participate in new educational thinking, educators should also learn about and keep abreast of new developments in the field.

In the establishment of the undergraduate social work sequences it is hoped that new avenues for integrating the practicum can be found. If so, it may well be that inputs from practice enriching the curriculum will be facilitated not only at the entry level, but throughout the continuum. Since the "culture" of schools at the undergraduate level is not so firmly entrenched as to the graduate level, change may be effected more easily and more patterns for teaching emerge. If so, both agencies and schools will hopefully move into a closer interchange of ideas from practice to education and from education to practice by contributing their thinking and combining their ideas. Selected agency educators would receive faculty appointments at the schools in the interest of coalescing such moves. The agency educator involved in educational planning early, consecutively, and consistently as a member of the school faculty would not need special orientation to the school because he is already an integral part of the faculty. Inherent in such a plan should be reciprocal access to the agency by the school. Faculty members who take advantage of the option to engage in agency practice will come to know the gamut of agency services and their potential for education much more thoroughly and intimately. It is recognized that there are practical obstacles to such exchange of faculty and agency personnel. If, however, even a relatively small number of faculty members took sabbaticals to practice and an equal number of agency personnel had sabbaticals to teach and write up their agency experiences, they could have an influential impact on the profession.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE PRACTICUM

Closer relationship to practice by faculty and to education by agency is all the more significant when it is considered that implementation of the continuum requires differentiation in field experiences according to the various academic gradations on a rational basis. Selection of the level of students to assign to an agency is frequently based on the simple expedience of level of social work manpower employed in rendering agency services. For many organizations this means accepting students, if any, only at one level. For the larger agencies students may be accepted at more than one level, and for the largest, at all levels.

Formulations and reformulations are in process for the content of social work curricula at the various levels. Field learning experiences should be selected sequences in harmony with the total course of study and should reflect the range of practice. They may vary from the simpler or less complex tasks to the more complex, from the range of concrete activities to the intangible feeling services of the profession, reaching from tried and traveled to new and untested regions, and certainly in the doctoral program to the experimental, to knowledge-building, to research. These differences in level are not sharp and distinct but blurred, and in application to the learning situation will overlap. They might be charted in a paradigm as shown in Figure 1.

Educational sophistication is needed in planning the practicum for premaster's students. It should not be assumed that any less care, perceptiveness, or sophistication in educational methodology is called for than for more advanced learners. Coordinated school-agency collaboration is a prerequisite to achieve relevance in field instruction, depth of student experiences, and rich variety of learning designs. The field instructor, primarily a perceptor in his relations with the student, is also a facilitator, making it possible for students to engage in a gamut of learning activities. These should be selected discriminately to meet educational objectives of the school and, to a great degree, the wishes and requirements of students. In the field, as well as in the academic realm, the instructor cannot succeed if he operates in a vacuum. He performs his teaching job best when he utilizes collaborating personnel who are authorities in their programs. In the multidisciplinary setting this consortium of field faculty includes other professional and vocational groups to ensure the student's real engagement as a member of the team.

In considering content of the undergraduate student's fieldwork, the

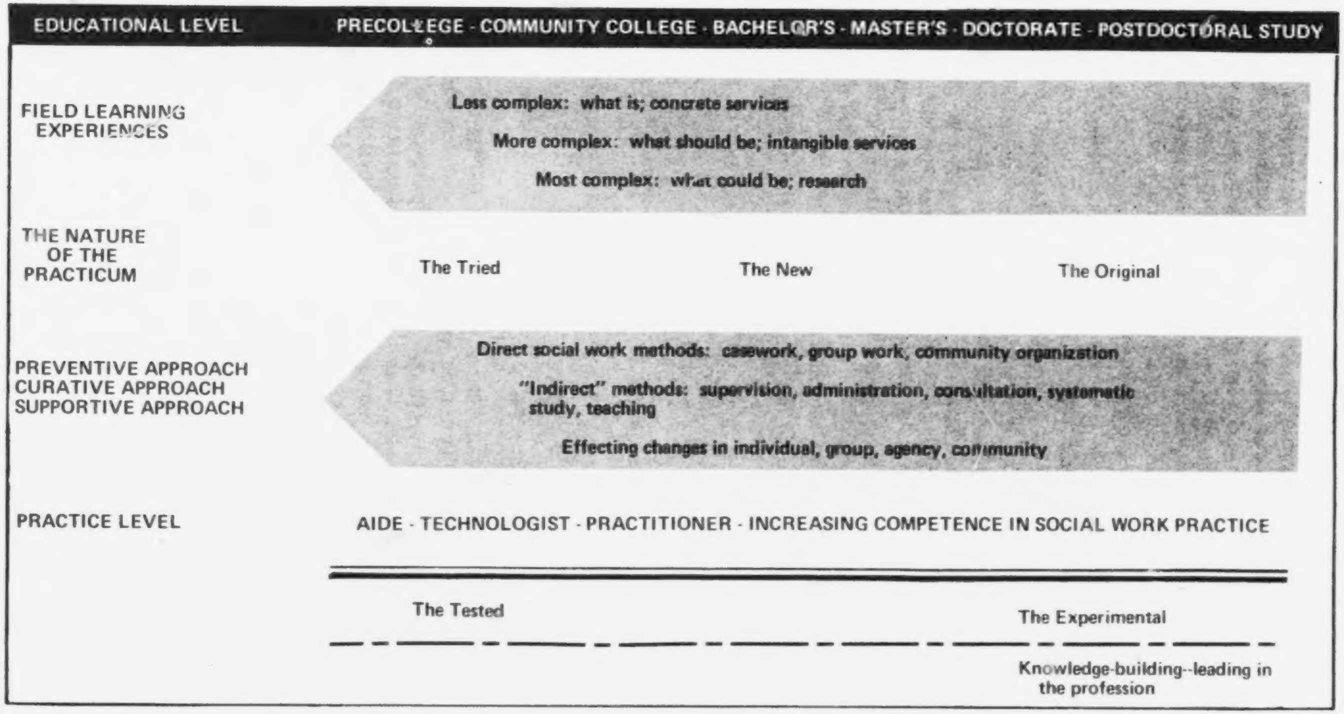

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL
PRECOLLEGE - COMMUNITY COLLEGE - BACHELOR'S - MASTER'S - DOCTORATE - POSTDOCTORAL STUDY
FIELD LEARNING EXPERIENCES
Less complex: what is; concrete services
More complex: what should be; intangible services
Most complex: what could be; research
THE NATURE OF THE PRACTICUM
The Tried
The New
The Original
PREVENTIVE APPROACH
CURATIVE APPROACH
SUPPORTIVE APPROACH
Direct social work methods: casework, group work, community organization
"Indirect" methods: supervision, administration, consultation, systematic study, teaching
Effecting changes in individual, group, agency, community
PRACTICE LEVEL
AIDE - TECHNOLOGIST - PRACTITIONER - INCREASING COMPETENCE IN SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE
The Tested
The Experimental
Knowledge-building--leading in the profession

Figure 1. The Educational Continuum and the Practicum in Social Work

agency must be as concerned as the school that he realize his potential. Practitioners accumulate a fund of ideas and know-how that should be transmitted to students in support of the purpose, continuity, and sequence of the course work. They should also expose students to emerging trends in practice that will be increasingly significant in their future careers. The practitioner is in a position to be the first to identify and describe new breakthroughs in practice and should be encouraged to do so more often. The academician is related to such new content ideologically at first. There remains the task of pulling together descriptive material from practice and combing out of it the concepts and methodological aspects. Here the academician is exceedingly helpful. Practitioners and academicians could also collaborate more often in writing to reduce the lag of translating agency experience into the literature.

OTHER "SENSITIVE" AREAS

Perplexing problems that arise for agencies as they attempt to implement the continuum may emanate from the need to assimilate students of different levels in the practicum and from choosing schools with which to affiliate. In the absence of definitive standards for burgeoning undergraduate programs, what criteria should the agency follow in establishing affiliations? What kinds of colleges or schools should receive preference when not all those interested could—or possibly should—be accommodated, at least by agencies currently most in demand for the practicums? If a university is already placing graduate students in a given setting, should undergraduates from that university be preferred over those from a nearby independent college of equal academic status in the undergraduate area, or vice versa? Should a consortium of schools be sought? National agencies have a responsibility to work with schools through CSWE to tease out the guidelines and principles that will redound most rewardingly in the long range to the social work profession and the people thereby served. Definitive activity on these matters is overdue. It is critical for the profession to take a stand on establishing such educational criteria.

A matter sometimes raised with agencies is to grant schools the freedom they should ideally have in the practicum. This subject might arise even if suggested improvements in basic communications between agency and school took place. Agencies may not have the leeway to grant schools such freedom. There can be further difficulty if the participation of the student is slighted or overlooked. Arbitrary selection of the field placement should give way to a plan providing the opportunity for agency officials, faculty, and students to meet and discuss both the nature of the placement and whether it is mutually acceptable. Such screening is too often skipped with excuses about the time it takes, or it may occur regularly only when the award of a trainee stipend is at stake. Even then it may be one-sided or skimpy in nature, with the student having only a limited opportunity to express what he seeks in the placement.

Applications to agencies for financing of undergraduate social work students will also recur increasingly as the undergraduate social work sequence becomes an accepted qualification for entry into professional practice. Agencies with policies committing their ongoing funds to graduate programs that are also expanding and are dependent on them for continued support cannot readily approve such requests. New sources for funding and enlarged appropriations must therefore be sought by agencies as well as schools.

Solution of the foregoing problems and others that will arise offers opportunities for undergraduate and graduate students to come together with advantage to each. One example is cooperation among faculties and planning by school consortia on timing the sending of students to the agency for the practicum. If the solution is simply to send various levels of students at different times, a full-time year-round educational position may legitimately be feasible for the sponsoring agency, as well as provision of clerical help and desk space for the trainees. Agencies should accommodate themselves in these matters to the exigencies of the educational programs they wish and need to sponsor.

It should be kept in mind that services to clients are invariably affected—adversely in some instances. When students from many disciplines are being trained, as in teaching hospitals, the conflicts that can arise and the resultant resolution of them—with deference to the pecking status of the disciplines concerned—may lead at times to a course of action heading toward collision with basic values and care of patients. Into this arena the students should be brought only with utmost administrative sensitivity. The schools should not be asked unilaterally to adjust their programs and themselves to the agency's exigencies, or vice versa. Rather, both school and agency working together can arrive at a mutual accord that will promote common objectives. When open exchange is encouraged, an educational climate is created conducive to bringing out the maximum "realness" of field learning experiences for the individual student wherever he is in the continuum.

IMPLICATIONS FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING

The continuum in social work education opens up inviting prospects for improvement in the quality and variety of manpower. But this promise will prove to be only a snare and a delusion if the requirements of those who will occupy the positions (students and prospective agency personnel) and the needs of those who will be served thereby (clients, patients, the general public) are not integrated.

This elementary and basic point is reiterated rather than left as an implicit assumption because the plea for relevance of curriculum to practice is thoroughly justified, whereas requests by employers to educators that students be prepared for specific jobs are not. Such demands are not valid and should be ignored.

Likewise the utilization of fieldwork students as apprentices should no longer be tolerated. The vestiges of this practice, where it still exists, should be completely stamped out. At the same time it is open to question whether the present situation is satisfactory: when many agencies prefer the undifferentiated baccalaureate, some seek out as employees such groups in the population as older women with specified employment characteristics rather than young college graduates; others select the poor and indigenous. This trend could continue—with devastating results to social work as a vital profession—unless the preparation of students at all levels of the continuum is strengthened in its applicability to practice. Indeed, this is a key reason why a service agency—the Veterans Administration—sponsored the project reported here, which brings educators, practitioners, and researchers together to work on strengthening the social work curriculum at the undergraduate level.

A great investment in staff development programs and in-service training is now made in social agencies employing the undifferentiated baccalaureate. Some of these points out that there is little or no incentive for them at this time to opt for the differentiated baccalaureate. The few social work courses now offered by most undergraduate sequences and the meager practicum of one day or half day weekly for two semesters or less rarely offer students the depth and breadth needed for beginning entry into practice. Under the influence of teaching generalities, too little attention may be paid to the areas of knowledge essential to specific fields of practice such as health, corrections, and child welfare. The result is that MSW's are now all too often laboriously engaged in teaching the BSW's and preprofessionals employed by their agencies what they need to know in the way of social work techniques and interventive skills. No study or evaluation of the effectiveness of BSWs on the job is complete unless the factor and cost of their agency in-service training and supervision is also measured. The current efforts of CSWE to establish minimal standards for the baccalaureate social work sequence may appreciably alter this situation in the next few years. Both course content and practicum should be placed at a level to prepare the BSW to engage in practice in the employ of a reputable social agency.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Introduction of the continuum may give impetus to sought-after career development programs. In the interest of improving services and personnel practices, agencies should assess the needs of their clients, their long-range manpower requirements, their facilities, financial and other resources at their command, the body of knowledge underlying their professional practice, and related aspects. In the light of such evaluation, the range of personnel to be utilized optimally and their qualifications can be determined. A social work career development ladder may evolve that ranges from the aide (pre-college), to the technologist (community college), (BSW), (MSW), and advanced social worker (DSW). Such a career ladder is not only theoretically possible, but should be aspired to in the field and in small as well as farflung agencies. To make such a career program workable, a system must be mapped out characterized by flexible entry through the various educational levels and career opportunities. It should be underpinned with the necessary finances, personnel practices, operational procedures, and cooperative arrangements with affiliated educational institutions. Such a program may at first consideration appear costly, but not when the conservation of professional values is considered or the benefits that would accrue from more efficient personnel deployment, morale, and improved social services. The losses now inherent in the overall helter-skelter patterning of careers and limited entry points into the profession could be converted to gains, further consolidated by tapping more varied sources of recruitment to the profession.

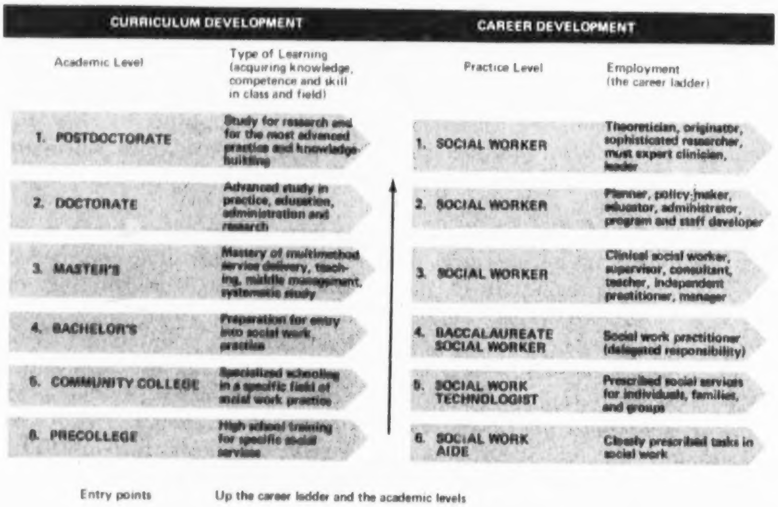
Emerging career development programs can indeed support the trend in social work education toward a comprehensive educational continuum, adaptable to the requirements of the students and of the clientele they will serve during their career lifetimes. Curriculum development at each educational level would then be logically projected in the light of the whole perspective of the continuum. The reasons for differential formulation of curriculum at each level would emerge as even more cogent. At the same time career development at each level of practice could be evaluated from a view of the field as a whole, and the forces to distinguish the various levels of competence would become compelling indeed. An attempt to chart the reciprocal interrelatedness of curriculum and career development is reflected in Figure 2.

At the same time as established agencies are attempting to develop career ladders, new positions designed to strengthen services are also emerging. These may encompass functions resulting from gaps in service. They may come about as a consequence of advances in knowledge and/or technological changes. In some practice fields such positions and careers may comprise contributions from many disciplines. One such example is the mental health worker, whose position—ranging from high school diploma to master's degree—consists of responsibilities from the fields of psychiatry, psychology, social work, nursing, religion, and rehabilitative therapies. As in social work, a formal course of study in school is planned accompanied by learning experiences in practice. Rotating supervision is provided by the disciplines involved in the practicum and will continue on the job until such time as the position of mental health worker will be sufficiently institutionalized to support its own supervisory personnel.

In the agencies as in the academic setting, the issue arises of sufficient flexibility in the system to allow the individual with proper credentials to transfer to another career for which he is suited without undue loss. Social work is enriched rather than lessened if career lattices as well as career ladders are projected. For example, in the health field it is conceivable that a high school dropout may enter as a nursing aide, become a physical therapy aide upon completion of high school, then a psychological assistant after community college, go on to serve as a BSW upon completing the college curriculum, and so on. Such career patterns will place a premium on creativity in rethinking curricula changes and far-sightedness in providing new linkages between sequences in the light of the continuum.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE CONSUMER

At the time that the introduction of a qualifying undergraduate social work sequence makes consideration of the continuum more



CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT		CAREER DEVELOPMENT	
Academic Level	Type of Learning (acquiring knowledge, competence and skill in class and field)	Practice Level	Employment (the career ladder)
1. POSTDOCTORATE	Study for research and for the most advanced practice and knowledge-building	1. SOCIAL WORKER	Theoretician, originator, sophisticated researcher, must expert clinician, leader
2. DOCTORATE	Advanced study in practice, education, administration and research	2. SOCIAL WORKER	Planner, policy-maker, educator, administrator, program and staff developer
3. MASTER'S	Mastery of multimethod service delivery, teaching, middle management, systematic study	3. SOCIAL WORKER	Clinical social worker, supervisor, consultant, teacher, independent practitioner, manager
4. BACHELOR'S	Preparation for entry into social work practice	4. BACCALAUREATE SOCIAL WORKER	Social work practitioner (delegated responsibility)
5. COMMUNITY COLLEGE	Specialized schooling in a specific field of social work practice	5. SOCIAL WORK TECHNOLOGIST	Prescribed social services for individuals, families, and groups
6. PRECOLLEGE	High school training for specific social services	6. SOCIAL WORK AIDE	Closely prescribed tasks in social work
Entry points	Up the career ladder and the academic levels		

Figure 2. The Educational Continuum and the Practice of Social Work

realistic, it also has implications for social work personnel, students, and clients. Some of the inferences in the field placement, especially for employers, faculty, and students, have already been noted. Aspects meriting further thought refer to the effects of this development on the consumer himself. Logically consumers may be identified as two distinct groups consisting of (1) the students, who are the users of the undergraduate social work sequence, and (2) the clients or patients, who ultimately make use of the social services rendered by graduates of the sequence.

Of some significance for many students is the added opportunity to initiate a professional social work career afforded by the undergraduate sequence. The fact that some may not be ready to make a career choice as early as the age of 18 is countermanded by those who can and those from the less financially advantaged sector who must. Adults from the 25-40 age group also find the baccalaureate entry attractive, especially when there are agency positions open to them following graduation. Current uncertainty regarding the availability of established BSW positions is of concern not only to graduates of the sequence but also to academic officials who must plan and conduct programs with full regard to the exigencies of the job market and the recruitability of able students. Like any new product, the differentiated BSW must be made known, utilized, and proved in the field in order to establish conclusively the demand for his employment.

Of even more crucial import accruing from the undergraduate social work sequence is the potential of offering more extensive and varied social services on behalf of ill and troubled persons. The consumer of social services is the ultimate gainer in this endeavor. In an increasingly complicated society, social services, characterized by good standards of quality, should be increasingly valued. The continuum makes possible preparation of social workers for a gamut of services to be extended to clients ranging from ghetto dwellers to the more affluent sections of the populace for which social work as a profession bears responsibility. How thoroughly and expertly the educational preparation of those electing to enter the field is conducted is a compelling element in determining whether those using such services are well served and whether these services are indeed sought by persons in distress.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO BE EXPECTED FROM AGENCIES

The thrust of the continuum could conceivably produce a viable social work team composed of members ranging from the community college to the doctoral levels. Such a team could serve the troubled, the ill, and the unfortunate more skillfully and comprehensively than ever before and contribute to the prevention as well as the amelioration of social ills. To achieve this goal social agencies must participate much more effectively in the educational process rather than be excluded or hold themselves aloof from it. Reference is made not only to such agency activities as funding student fellowships, providing grants to schools and universities for various educational purposes, and sponsoring research or other scholarly pursuits. Unquestionably such responsibilities should be assumed by agencies as long as the need for such assistance continues. In fact, such universally accepted agency roles as providing funds and facilities for field instruction can be expected to grow, especially if their educational offering remains useful to the learner. If the proposed educational continuum is in reality to eventuate, however, agencies will need to be involved in a variety of other ways. Some of these have been tested, others remain to be tried. In the following listing, a number of proposals are summarized calling for agency-school collaboration in furtherance of the social work continuum.

1. Exchange of agency instructors and school educators should be sponsored in an effort to keep them appropriately related to both practice and education. If it is indeed true that agency personnel have made little contribution to curriculum content and academic personnel have had minimal impact on practice, such interchange may be a more viable way of bringing field and classroom teaching together to expedite the students' learning at any point in the continuum. Developing curriculum for the continuum is much more demanding than separate concern with each segment of a degree program. Faculties will need to be involved in overall planning across the board. What is not so generally implemented is (a) the inclusion of agency educators, with appropriate recognition as adjunct faculty or as agency consultants on curriculum development, and (b) the invitation of faculty to study and write up agency practice.

2. Establishment of social service centers on campuses or at selected affiliated agencies can facilitate demonstrations at which curriculum content and learning experiences in the practicum can initially be established and then subsequently revised in keeping with changing knowledge and evolving methods of practice.

3. Purposeful attention should also be paid to strengthening curriculum content in relation to specific fields of practice. This can be done without violence to the all-important generic base. The need for encompassing knowledge areas in relation to the various areas of social work competence have all too often been overlooked. Consequently the trend to initiate educational programs for new careers and positions with a strong social work component outside the schools of social work in at least some of the fields of practice continues, despite the fact that such career lines might better be integrated into the social work continuum. (A specific example is the establishment of the undergraduate social work sequence in the health field by a few schools of the applied health professions.)

4. Entry into the social work continuum should be flexible. Engineering this many-doored entry into practice can be facilitated by providing academic linkages throughout schooling and employment with appropriate professional supervision available to graduates at each level of the continuum. During the initial and transitional periods of the continuum, when a better prepared social worker at the baccalaureate level assumes responsibility for many services now rendered by MSW's, the latter, grounded as they are in practice, can supervise BSW's in performing duties previously assigned to them. Likewise, the MSW of

the future who has first completed his differentiated baccalaureate work and applied it in practice will have greater success in supervising or teaching what he has practiced. Difficulty may arise with the student who goes directly from the differentiated undergraduate course of study to the master's sequence without reinforcing his study in practice. Upon receiving an MSW—perhaps in the "middle range" of social work knowledge and practice, such as administration and supervision—he would be quite handicapped if called on to supervise differentiated BSW's in their practice—that is, if he himself had only his own field instruction to offer and no other practice experience. In time the experienced BSW could supervise the newly graduated BSW; the experienced MSW, the new MSW. This solution would result in a separation of practice levels undermining the construction of a professional continuum.

5. One response to this situation could be an in-depth practicum at each level of the continuum from community college to doctoral study. The learning experience in class and field would be geared to meeting the educational needs of students as well as to prepare them for their professional roles after graduation. The process of differentiating content in the practicum of each level would be in keeping with the process of differentiating course content. This could be done deliberately and studiously. Assuredly agencies have a responsibility to support such study efforts; some have already been initiated. Agencies should be as receptive as schools are called on to be in providing learning experiences supportive to the curriculum.

6. A realignment of manpower should emanate from the social work continuum. Thus the community college student could be prepared either for a technical occupation or as a preprofessional social work technologist. The differentiated BSW, with a battery of interventive skills and techniques at his command, could be prepared for beginning professional practice. The MSW would be expected to have polyvalent command of casework, group work, and community organization. Additionally, he might ably fulfill the middle-management roles of supervision, administration, and consultation. As a program developer and planner he would be considered a social strategist. As a program critiquer and evaluator he would function as "social negotiator." The doctoral social worker would be the program and policyleader, the master researcher, the theoretician, and so on. In the continuum, the "spread" of the MSW would be significantly curtailed by the community college and baccalaureate graduates assuming the technical and client service roles, largely because he knows them so thoroughly that he can teach them to persons with lesser schooling. On the other hand, the more complex leadership and pioneer-type activities that the competent MSW with years of experience and study has assumed could be siphoned into the doctoral sequence. Agencies in today's complex world must use all the levels of educational output that will enrich their service delivery.

7. Social agencies will need to absorb in their tables of organization the multilevel personnel resulting from the social work continuum. In relinquishing the MSW as the solo participant in professional practice

extended over the entire ladder of social services, agencies can begin to assign to the MSW the role suggested—perhaps more delimited, but also characterized by greater depth. Additional personnel resources ranging from the preprofessional community college graduate to the doctoral graduate will also tend to enrich agency services. Such reorganization of personnel should prove to be as advantageous to an agency whose traffic is in the welfare of people as retooling for purposes of modernization is to a factory whose product is purchasable commodities. The payoff, if the process of change is well planned and efficiently administered, should be just as profitable, if not lifesaving.

8. Methods of classifying or accrediting each level of the continuum are in urgent need of development, probably through the professional associations. Only through such an approach can employing agencies readily evaluate the preparation of applicants for positions. Both school curriculum and agency program are constantly changing and growing. At any point in this process manpower may become available with needed skills and competence for which agency positions are not yet established. Both parties must coordinate activities so as to minimize such lags, with integration of practical short-range and farsighted long-range planning.

9. Continuing education sponsored by the schools and staff development under agency auspices will be an essential element in implementing the continuum. Obsolescence must be combatted. Some system of validating competence achieved through continuing education and staff development should be devised. This might consist of accrediting or certifying agency-based programs as well as academic courses of study leading to degrees. Perhaps agency-school plans, together or separately, could be designed to recognize and identify advanced levels of performance—between academic degrees, so to speak. Certification of benchmarks achieved anywhere in the continuum agreed on by the profession should be related to the interests of social services. An educated consumer public will respond, and in time demand with increasing persistence such standard-setting from the agencies and social workers opting to serve them. As social science research and scientific advances open up new frontiers, lifetime learning will come to be accepted as the way for a progressive society. The speedup of such changes facilitated by the communication media leads to a culture in which return to school for study every few years is necessary to keep up with scientific progress. Preoccupation with the undergraduate social work sequence and the continuum should not preclude taking cognizance of the related dimension of continuing education in developing the profession for the future as well as for today.

CONCLUSION

The emergence of the continuum holds promise and meaning for the practice of social work in the future. Only a few of the many-faceted implications were explored in this paper. The inferences drawn and the issues identified raise questions still unanswered. They can be thrashed out only in thoughtful deliberation with closer interplay between school and agency. Upgrading of the undergraduate social work sequence is an essential aspect of the process. Curriculum-building must proceed hand in hand with career-building in the agency. Both processes must be directed to the objective of enriching social work's contribution to society. The arduous effort entailed in such an accomplishment, if carried out in the best tradition of those already in the profession united with those now preparing to enter it, could have an outcome with an impressive impact on the health and welfare of all people.

Part Five

Task Force on Social Welfare Content

INTRODUCTION

Ernest Witte

This report on the social welfare content of the undergraduate social work curriculum is a composite and unanimous report of Task Force II. Preparation of this report was undertaken with certain definite agreed-upon instructions and limitations, which included the following:

1. The task force should deal with the social service content rather than the general educational components or even the social-behavioral science foundation content.

2. The social service content should be conceptualized around educational objectives rather than through a topography of courses.

3. Although learning may be conceived of as having cognitive, affective, and skill components, these attributes are not mutually exclusive and cannot be considered without noting their relationships to each other. The rationale for considering these separate components of learning was that such a conceptualization might provide a model for developing curriculum that permits new insights to help avoid some of the pitfalls of the more traditional route.

Although the Advisory Committee did not force definitions on task force members, the following were suggested as guides and were utilized by Task Force II:

Cognitive refers to the knowledge a student needs to have about himself, society, and clients as an a priori condition for provision of services.

Affect refers to those attitudes, values, and feelings that permit the practitioner to use himself in an acceptable way in developing rapport and response with a client system.

Skill is conceived of as the learning necessary to combine the practitioner's knowledge and affect into role performance. Although the concepts of intervention and skill are closely associated, skill may be considered the broader of the two.

4. It was further agreed that the time available to members of the

task force would make it impossible for them to include in their report a detailed treatment of recommended curriculum content. Such an effort would have required the production of a volume equivalent to Volume II of the comprehensive curriculum study published by the Council on Social Work Education in 1959. Rather, it was agreed that selected areas would be developed in considerable detail as an illustration of how this might be done for other curriculum areas. Such expanded treatment, including illustrative syllabi, will be found in the appendices to this section of the book.

In addition, attention is called to the following publications dealing specifically with social welfare and social work content that will be available in the near future or have a definite projected publication date:

> Frank Loewenberg, R. Dolgoff, and Herbert Bisno, *The Teaching of Practice Skills* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1970).
> John Romanyshyn, *Social Welfare: Charity to Justice* (New York: Random House, to be published in February 1971).
> Herbert Bisno, *Social Work and Social Services—Function, Structure and Change*, (New York: Harper & Row, Vol. I to be published in May or June 1971).

Readers of this report may find helpful a brief indication of the way the report was prepared and is presented. Herbert Bisno was asked to prepare the basic overall document that is incorporated in the body of the report, "Social Welfare Content." He also prepared other related documents that are included in the appendices. John Romanyshyn was asked to prepare material dealing with the objectives of social welfare as a social institution and a document dealing with a policy issue to illustrate one approach, both of which are published as appendices. Zelda Samoff was asked to prepare a paper that would clarify and emphasize the affective content of social work education and perhaps make clearer its relationship to cognitive content and methods of instruction. Her paper is especially useful in presenting her perception of how to design a curriculum that would be psychologically meaningful to both teachers and students.

The task force agreed that certain curriculum materials available to it were important to present as a means of illustrating and clarifying certain curriculum content areas. It was thought that such material would be helpful to users of this report by suggesting to them approaches in developing their own curriculum content. This task force is firmly convinced that each faculty member must develop his own courses if they are to have maximum utility. These materials are therefore included as appendices.

It should be repeated that although task force members were asked to undertake specific assignments, this is a task force report. This does not imply that the report reflects total agreement of every member with what has been included or excluded, nor does it imply that the form and words used are necessarily those that any single member might have used. It does mean, however, that the overall content, the concepts on which the report is based, and the implications of the potential contribution of undergraduate education to the preparation of social workers for practice are unanimously held by task force members.

In summary then, the task force report includes as appendices the following content presented in the order most directly consistent with the paper prepared by Mr. Bisno:

Appendix A. An outline of middle-level educational objectives—content to be learned—including detailed elaboration of one educational objective—social change—prepared by Herbert Bisno.

Appendix B. An elaboration of the objectives for the "social welfare as a social institution" sector of the curriculum. This is augmented in Appendix C by a specification of the postulates underlying an aspect of the determinants of social welfare policy, "Some Basic Assumptions in Support of an Income Strategy." Both of these documents were prepared by John Romanyshyn.

Appendix D. A draft syllabus titled "Human Service Organizations, Professions, and Consumers," prepared by Richard Steinman.

Appendix E. A detailed development of one concept, conflict, prepared by Simon Slavin.

Appendix F. A proposal for a reconceptualization of social work methods "A Theoretical Framework for Teaching Social Work Methods and Skills" prepared by Herbert Bisno.

Appendix G. A paper on the psychological basis for building a curriculum, with specific emphasis on the affective component of social welfare content, prepared by Zelda Samoff.

Appendix H. A "structural-functional" model of curriculum organization prepared by Herbert Bisno.

Appendix I. Descriptions of several illustrative social work programs now being developed or actually in operation at various schools.

a. Undergraduate major in social work at the Teaneck (N.J.) campus of Fairleigh Dickinson University.

b. The social welfare sequence of the University of Maine in Portland.

c. The program of the Undergraduate Department of Social Welfare, School of Social Administration, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.

SOCIAL WELFARE CONTENT

Herbert Bisno

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Mission of the task force

This task force will attempt to specify the major elements of the professional content of an undergraduate program designed to prepare baccalaureate students to practice social work or to fill related occupational roles (traditional and innovative) in the social services immediately following graduation.[1]

B. Assumptions

1. It is assumed that the same undergraduate program that prepares social work practitioners can prepare students to enter graduate schools of social work with a clear advantage over students without comparable preparation. It is also anticipated that an undergraduate social work program will contribute, as do the other offerings, to the general educational purposes of the institution of which it is a part.[2]

2. The conception of social work practice used in this document is not limited to so-called direct service activities but encompasses the total range of appropriate roles, functions, and tasks.

3. Since the central goal of the program is the preparation of social work practitioners, it appears appropriate to use *social work* as the program designation.

4. We do not believe that an undergraduate program is properly developed by selecting from graduate programs that content which can be presented on a "lower" level. The effective way to build a program is from the "bottom up" or to develop it simultaneously at several levels.

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[1] Some persons are attempting to maintain a distinction between undergraduate social work practitioner-oriented programs and professional soical work programs, which are defined as being entirely in the graduate sphere. The task force believes this is a divisive and untenable distinction, based on anachronistic political and status considerations. It appears to be educationally unsound and totally incompatible with the developments noted in Section II.

[2] "Citizenship participation" is not conceived of as a specific and unique goal of the social work program as such.

C. Limitations

It is important to recognize from the outset what this task force defines as being outside its proper or feasible scope. First, we do not plan to provide detailed specification of content equivalent to that found in course syllabi or elaborated course outlines. Even less is it our intention to provide a substitute for substantive reading material. Second, the practical limitations if this project preclude a narrative commentary on the identified elements. Third, although an effort was made to examine materials used in programs at a wide variety of schools, it would be pretentious and misleading to claim that the task force's conclusions were based on extensive and systematic new research. Fourth, the working procedures adopted by the task force necessarily imply that its conclusions reflect, in critical ways, the individual and collective judgments of the task force members. We do not wish to create the illusion of a definitive wisdom transcending the fallible qualities of those individuals making up the task force. Fifth, although all aspects of the Syracuse University project are intimately related, the division of labor among the various task forces means that not all the linked facets can be explored by each of the task forces, even though this does violence to organically connected subjects.

Although these disclaimers may appear to reduce the utility of this enterprise below an acceptable level, we shall attempt, by means of selective elaboration and differential emphasis, to achieve our purpose in a manner that is realistic, educationally sound, and still useful to the reader. Let it be perfectly clear, though, that while we believe a project of this sort can be of considerable assistance to an instructor or department, we hold strongly to the conviction that it cannot serve as a meaningful substitute for mastery of the content and skillful, creative teaching by the classroom instructor.

II. IMPORTANT PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

A. New NASW membership requirements

By a membership referendum the National Association of Social Workers recently broadened the eligibility criteria for membership. Two of these changes have specific significance for undergraduate programs. The first makes persons eligible for regular membership if they hold a bachelor's degree with an undergraduate sequence in social work that meets criteria established by the Council of Social Work Education. The second change, which concerns advancement from one membership category to another, specifies that associate members may advance to regular membership after completing 2 years of social work employment, 2 years in the associate category, and specified undergraduate or graduate academic requirements. The new reality, then, is this: The undergraduate social work program is the first level of professional education. It is designed to prepare practicing social workers.

A related development is the pending acceptance, early in 1970, of social workers with bachelor's degrees for membership in the Social Work Vocational Bureau.

B. Federal funding

In recent years a number of Federal agencies have supported workshops, teaching institutes, and conferences designed to promote and strengthen undergraduate education. The Syracuse project is itself funded by the Veterans Administration. In addition, new categories of social work employees, for which the bachelor's degree is the requisite qualification, have been created by various Federal agencies and Federal-State services. Finally, and most dramatic, is the funding for undergraduate social work education provided through Title VII, Section 707, of the Social Security Act and the Federal 75-25 percent funding available through State welfare agencies.

C. Expanded activities of CSWE

CSWE has carried on numerous activities in recent years designed to promote and strengthen undergraduate programs. The expansion of undergraduate consultation services, the publication of a wide range of teaching materials, support and stimulation of conferences, institutes for faculty, and the like have all made an important contribution. However, the single most significant CSWE activity in the undergraduate area is the continuing development of strengthened criteria for undergraduate member schools.

D. Work of regional organizations

Organizations such as the Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education and the Southern Regional Education Board have carried on a variety of programs designed to gain greater acceptance of undergraduate programs as well as to enhance the quality of these programs by strengthening the preparation of the instructional staffs.

E. The community college movement

There has been a great surge of interest in community service and related educational programs on the part of community colleges. A most important recent development in this connection has been the preparation of CSWE, in cooperation with the American Association of Junior Colleges, of guidelines for the development of community service technician programs.

F. The "new" manpower picture

For a variety of reasons the present manpower picture is quite different from that envisioned in the "GAP" report of a number of years ago. In many communities, especially larger ones, there is now a surplus of undifferentiated baccalaureate graduates seeking positions in the social services. The indications are that with the expansion of community college and undergraduate programs, a decreasing rate of expansion in related human service fields and the opening up of "new Careers"-type programs, the surplus will increase. This manpower reality together with the need to strengthen the quality of services performed by persons with less than graduate training, will in all probability result in an intensified drive to get employers to differentiate in some way between those with appropriate education and those without such preparation.

This development will in turn tend to improve the quality of undergraduate programs as well as being an expression of the upgrading of such programs.

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF PRACTICE STUDIES

Most studies of the performance of persons with less than graduate preparation engaged in social work activities have not been directly addressed to the relationship between behavior on the job and the type of undergraduate preparation. Hence the conclusions that can legitimately be derived from such studies are rather limited. At the very least, though, the following can be maintained: Since even largely undifferentiated baccalaureate graduates can satisfactorily perform many tasks and functions considered to be within the purview of social work, it follows that students graduating from social work programs should certainly be able to perform many social work functions and tasks in an adequate manner. In a general sense, too, one can say that some curriculum content suggestions relating to the problems, procedures, and skills involved in the performance of social work roles can be inferred from studies of practice.

IV. KEY ISSUES IN PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

A. Goals

There has been and is much confusion about appropriate goals of undergraduate programs. The range covers, at one extreme, teaching about social welfare for purposes of general cultural enrichment and responsible citizenship to, at the other, preparation for the practice of social work. An aspect of this question has been whether it is logically consistent or feasible to postulate several different goals for the same undergraduate program. This task force has taken the position that the primary goal of the type of undergraduate program it envisions is preparation for practice, with preparation for graduate education being a second and compatible purpose.[3]

B. Terminology and functions

The matter of terminology in the designation of undergraduate programs continues to be a troublesome issue. One suspects that this is a symptom of much more basic concerns, confusions, and disagreements. These include such matters as varying goals, imprecise terminology within the field itself, striving for prestige, political considerations, and the problem of interpretation to the public. Rather than explore the full ramifications of all these possibilities, we shall use heuristic definitions in advancing a set of conclusions.

1. Propositions

First, *social welfare* is here defined as a field of activity and, in sociological terms, an institutional sector of society. *Social services* refers to a category of services. *Social work* is an occupation that provides a professional service. *Social workers* play a prominent role in the provision of various of the social services and many, but not all, of their activities take place within the framework of the social welfare institution. With these definitions as a point of departure, the following "if-then" propositions are advanced:

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[3] This position is stated in Section I, A and B, of this report.

a. If the goal of the program basically is to prepare students for professional social work practice, then it should be designated a *social work* program.

b. If the primary goal of the program is really to prepare students for two or more occupations (not just slightly modified or thinly disguised social work education), then a broader occupational-type designation (e.g., human service or social service occupations) would be desirable.

c. If the central goal of the program is to prepare students with different occupational backgrounds for functioning in a given institutional area or for providing a category (or categories) of service, then a designation suggesting the field of activity or category of service (e.g., social welfare or social service) would be most appropriate.

d. If the main purpose of the program is to develop intellectual mastery of a given body of content beyond that identified with the usual disciplines, then an area of knowledge designation (e.g., urban affairs or black studies) would be the most appropriate title.

e. If a combination of these purposes constitutes a central goal, then a broad designation reflecting the varied elements of the program would be in order.[4]

Of course, these are analytical conclusions that might have to be modified in any given situation by political imperatives or public relations problems.

There are certain common reasons for using designations other than social work for undergraduate programs that we consider to be of dubious validity. These include distinguishing between undergraduate and graduate programs, providing a more prestigious name for what remains basically a social work program, and creating a liberal arts aura for the program.

In view of the fact that the primary goal of the program spelled out in this report is to prepare social work practitioners, the designation *social work* has been adopted for our program. This has the advantages of denotative accuracy, reinforcement of the profession's visibility, freedom from subterfuge, support for the professional identification and socialization of the student, more explicit linkage between the educational program and the field of practice, and greater continuity between undergraduate and graduate professional programs.

2. *Arguments for broad programs*

There is another type of question, one concerned with the substantive merits of programs of greater than usual breadth, that needs to be explicated and discussed, albeit briefly. Among the primary arguments in support of programs such as those in the "human services" are the following:

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[4] There may be, of course, a discrepancy between the designation given a program by the educational institution of which it is a part and organized occupational bodies external to the school. For example ,a program may justifiably be defined by a spokesman for social work as essentially social work education, even though the administering institution uses a different title.

a. The interprofessional cross-fertilization is likely to lead to more effective practice because of greater emphasis on interdisciplinary content and teaching.

b. Such programs are likely to be more efficient than diverse programs that often cover much of the same ground.

c. Broad programs encompassing a number of professions are less likely than traditional programs to lead to narrowly rigid professional identification, which, in turn, creates interprofessional misunderstanding and conflict.

d. With the professional roles in the human services in a state of flux, and a blurring of many roles, supraprofessional education is better attuned to contemporary practice.

e. New and more appropriate professional categories and identifications may result from these broader programs.

f. Supraprofessional programs are likely to broaden the base of student recruitment.

3. Disadvantages of broad programs

The major disadvantages of these broad "multiprofessional" programs appear to be as follows:

a. The selection of a core of knowledge, skills, and attitudes common to the various professions is a difficult process with a built-in set of potential political as well as analytical problems.

b. There is likely to be a problem, of time and requirements, in incorporating the essential core and specialized content within any given program.

c. There may be a serious problem of faculty selection, socialization, and integration.

d. There is likely to be a lessening, if not loss, of identification with the usual professional occupations, without the development of a strong new occupational connection. The probable consequence is an identification with a given organization, activity, field of practice and/or clientele. The results of this are likely to be (1) an increase in the already existing domination of professional norms, values, and identifications by organizational field-of-practice imperatives, (2) lessened mobility among field of practice, (3) aggravation of the existing problem of low visibility faced by some occupations, and (4) intensification of interorganization or interfield conflict as a substitute for interoccupational misunderstanding and conflict.

e. The instructional level of generalization may have to be pitched at too high a level (in order to cover all the occupational spheres) to be effective and meaningful.

f. Within the existing occupations, which tend to cover a broad range of content and interests, students often are disinterested in some aspects of the program. Increasing the breadth of the program, as would be the case in a human services major, would likely add to this problem.

g. There is more likelihood of confusion between a professional major and a liberal arts major in a human services program than is the case with a more usual profession-linked program.

h. The learning problems are compounded when a multiprofessional focus is added to the multidisciplinary content that already makes up such a large part of social work education.

i. There is less likelihood of effective linkage between graduate professional programs and undergraduate programs not identified with the usual professions.

j. Unless the human services program is narrowly focused on a given field of practice, there is likely to be less effective linkage with the occupational job market. Related to this is the question of public understanding of the new program.

It seems reasonable to conclude that the problems of implementing broad programs such as the human services programs are indeed formidable and that it would be distinctly premature to evaluate them as being preferable to the more usual professional programs.

An alternative that is free of many of these problems is to have a distinct social work major within a more comprehensive human services structure. This approach has some of the advantages of the human services program, many fewer disadvantages, but some real limitations of its own. For instance, this organizational pattern is much less innovative than a common core human service program since it really represents a structural shelter for relatively discrete programs of a more usual type. Also, although there may be a tendency for more multidisciplinary and multiprofessional interaction within such an administrative "umbrella" there may also be serious competition for resources and recognition of the part of the various occupational majors.

After examining the various possibilities, the task force decided to base our study on the premise of an undergraduate social work program. This does not of course preclude the possibility of a range of satisfactory administrative homes for such a program.

C. Administrative auspices

In a recent article Dolgoff systematically explored the advantages and disadvantages of alternative administrative auspices.[5] Witte has also addressed himself to this question in a recent article, in which he makes an effective case for a separate major in its own administrative home (i.e., a department).[6] These analyses will not be repeated here. Our position is this: Although there are probably a number of potentially workable structural arrangements, the new "professional" character of the undergraduate program of the type postulated in this report greatly strengthens the argument for a separate major within a suitable larger administrative home (e.g., department, new multiprofessional structure, school of social work). There is a high probability that the internal stresses within a sociology department (or any other basic discipline) that contains a social work concentration will increase as the social work program professionalizes and the sociology program becomes more oriented to research and graduate studies.

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[5] Ralph Dolgoff, "Administrative Auspices for Undergraduate Social Welfare Programs: Advantages and Disadvantages of Various Alternatives," *Social Work Education Reporter*, Vol. 17, No. 3 (September 1969).

[6] Ernest F. Witte, "Implications and Next Steps for Undergraduate Education," Continuities in Undergraduate Social Welfare Education (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1969).

It might be desirable at this point to clarify our use of some terms. By *concentration* is meant a cluster of interrelated courses that do not result in a separate major or degree. The term *sequence* is used loosely in the literature. It has been equated by some with either a concentration or program, while others have used it in the latter sense. Of course, the term *sequential* can refer to components of content, not just courses as such.

D. Field instruction

Although field instruction is an organic part of the total undergraduate program this aspect will not be elaborated on, since another task force has this responsibility.

E. Roles to be filled

There is obviously an intimate link between educational programs and employment of the graduates of these programs. However, since there is a task force on manpower utilization, we will do no more with this topic than to say that it is a responsibility of the undergraduate programs to prepare students to fill both innovative and still viable traditional roles. Of course, even employment in a traditional setting or role should not be seen as justification for a social worker to accept the existing order of things. Organizational, policy, program, and role changes should be the responsibility of all social workers when the correction of social inadequacies or injustices requires such changes.

F. Admission to and retention in undergraduate programs

Since the proposed program is a professional course of study, it is important that there be a formal, selective (not automatic) admissions procedure. This would permit interpretation of the program at the time of application and would allow a check on numbers, as well as making possible the rare rejection of an applicant because of gross unsuitability.

Students would understand, from the time of admission to the program, that satisfactory completion of the required field experience is a necessity for graduation and that satisfactory grades would not be the only basis for retention in it.

G. Student recruitment

Systematic efforts should be made to recruit talented students, especially from disadvantaged groups, for undergraduate social work programs.

H. Faculty

The ideal faculty member is professionally educated, has good experience, is sophisticated in the related basic knowledge areas, is a fine teacher and researcher, and understands academic norms and the mission of the university. Obviously realistic expectations cannot be equated with this ideal. The criteria for employment, tenure, and promotion need to be as functional as possible. This implies, for example, that an academic unit should be evaluated in terms of its balance as a unit, rather than expecting each faculty member to excel in all the areas. For example, unusual competence in performing the required instructional functions should permit tenure and promotion, even in lieu of certain qualifications such as the Ph. D. or publication.

It should be clear that we are not justifying the employment of less-than-competent faculty members any more than we favor graduating students who have not attained the necessary level of proficiency. What we are contending is that the range and diversity of competence required by a social work program need to be recognized and realistically appraised, and that nonfunctional criteria (traditional or new) be replaced by meaningful standards.

I. Financial commitment

An undergraduate social work program that is designed to prepare practitioners is not cheap and cannot be effectively implemented unless adequate resources are allocated to the program. At the present time most undergraduate programs do not have the resources to execute the type of program we have in mind. It is our position that the quality of a program is of the essence. Hence we view it as much more desirable for the profession and society to have a limited number of good undergraduate social work programs than a large number of inadequate programs. We believe that many an educational institution will have to make a forthright and difficult decision in the near future on the matter of the extent and type of support it is willing to provide for the undergraduate social work program.

J. Number of students and size of classes

Professional education in social work, as in medicine and other occupations, is not cheap. In certain subjects small classes are essential. The quality of the program should not be allowed to deteriorate because the number of students exceeds the resources.

K. Advising and teaching loads

A program of the type being proposed puts a premium on skilled advising. It is recommended that a system of units encompassing the major instructional activities be worked out for the purpose of determining the appropriate instructional load for a faculty member. Exclusive reliance on classroom hours as a measure results in a consistent downgrading of other essential aspects of the teacher's roles despite contrary expectations and goals.

L. Coordination among undergraduate programs, community colleges, and graduate schools

Since it is the function of another task force, this topic will not be explored.

V. CONTENT

We have already entered a disclaimer about what we are not going to do. The most important of these is that we are not providing an alternative to the development of specific course outlines or syllabi. Even less do we see our work as constituting a "canned" educational program. We would not, even if we could, attempt to describe (and certainly not dictate) "ideal" courses or an "ideal" curriculum. As a matter of fact we are not even in a position to elaborate on most of the educational objectives we have identified. This means that there is a real danger that some of the content we are presenting will be misunderstood or misused. We know of no way to ensure that this will not occur. All we can do is note that to be used effectively the content that is explicated must be meaningful to the instructor, that is, he needs to be comfortable with the ideas, in the sense of possessing a rather thorough understanding of them, if he is to incorporate this content in his courses. The real risk arises from an instructor trying to work with materials that are alien to him. Thus we put our ultimate confidence in the good judgment of the teacher.

One other comment is in order. Some instructors may find that there are important content items listed with which they are not at ease. Others may find themselves taken aback by the extent of the material. We can express sympathy, but not much in the way of solace. We believe that social work education is in the midst of a critically important transition that will put new demands on all of us. In our own sphere (and without pushing the analogy too far) we are moving from an "old math" to a "new math." And that means we need to master new knowledge and develop new competence. There is no alternative. We do hope, though, that our work in this project will help in this transition and that it will be seen as an aid rather than simply as a potential burden. Hopefully too, the transition will be aided by new teaching material, teacher workshops, teaching-learning technologies, and so on. Ultimately, though, the burden remains with the instructor to master what the present age requires.

VI. UNANSWERED QUESTIONS

Many uncertainties remain. Among the major ones are these:

a. What important content that should have been included has been left out?

B. Of the material that has been included, which components are not especially useful?

C. How should the content be organized (vertically and horizontally) for most effective learning?

D. How can more effective field-classroom linkages be established?

E. What methods of teaching-learning are most effective for what types of content?

These are but a few of the questions that remain. Much experimentation must be done before we will be in a position to respond to them with a high degree of confidence.

APPENDICES

INTRODUCTION

In these appendices, reference to an undergraduate program in social work means the total complex of offerings—required and elective, with both social work-social welfare content and content from other disciplines—that go to make up the course of study. Although it would have been highly desirable to identify relevant content in relation to the overall program, practical limitations precluded such an extensive undertaking. Instead, the task force has concentrated on social work and social welfare content objectives. This does not imply that the importance of content in other areas for the social work program has been neglected. Nor does it suggest that prerequisite and supportive courses in related disciplines can be dispensed with in favor of social work content offerings. On the contrary, we believe that much social work-social welfare content cannot be learned adequately without a grasp of theories, concepts, and data from various of the basic disciplines. For example, it is assumed that a student will have a firm grounding in a number of the social sciences before attempting to cope with the content described in Appendix A.

The conceptual material that has been identified here is varied and complex partly because there are no high-level theoretical systems, or even midrange conceptual schemes, that are adequate as analytical instruments for understanding the social world. Thus while the scientific virtue of parsimony remains a desideratum in social analysis and explanation, it is not readily attainable at present. This implies that we must possess a large repertoire of theories, concepts, and data on which we are competent to draw, selectively and skillfully (is it too much to say with artistry?), in coping with relevant questions and problems.

It is recognized that the extensive listing of content that characterizes Appendix A may disenchant the reader. The question that might immediately arise is: Of what use and in what manner? A relatively full treatment of many of the ideas noted here will be provided in two forthcoming texts. However, for the purpose at hand—and to suggest in a most summary fashion an answer to the above question—it might be useful to comment briefly and illustratively on one of the sections of the outline.

Section VI A may appear especially uninviting. It represents, of course, an elaboration, in outline form, of the social change component. The content is not intended to serve as a list to be memorized by students or as a symbol of the erudition of the instructor. Rather, a command of this content (including a grasp of the essentials, limitations, and potential uses of the various theoretical schools) permits the teaching and learning of the history of social welfare and social work within a social change framework—a framework that stresses the dynamics and recurrent social forces responsible for the emergence, development, and decline of policies and programs. This is in sharp contrast to a particularistic historical emphasis that highlights what is unique. The selective use of various change concepts, as they are appropriate to the matter under analysis, will not only help to explain past behavior but should also assist in the understanding of contemporary and future policy options and consequences. For example, the development of the English Poor Law, the recurrence of McCarthyism in the United States, or the emergence of the present political and social conflicts in the United States are not self-explanatory. Hence the various concepts and theoretical notions that might be useful in analysis and explanation are presented. Some instructors might prefer to discuss the basic concepts prior to analyzing the substance of change, while others might wish to move inductively from the data to the conceptual framework. Of course, not all the ideas are useful or necessary in dealing with any given event: that is why the selective and skillful use of the material has been stressed. We hope we have offered some useful intellectual tools that will contribute to understanding as well as to more effective outcomes for programs and practice. But tools are by themselves dull and lifeless: the magic, animation, and creativity that result from their use is but a measure of the imagination and competence of whoever uses them.

APPENDIX A

SOCIAL WORK-SOCIAL WELFARE CONTENTS

I. *Social Work-Social Science*
   - A. Social science and social work: differences in aims and functions
   - B. Differential role requirements of the social scientist and social worker
   - C. Problems in respect to the usefulness and availability on content from the social sciences for social work
   - D. Problems in communication between social scientists and social workers
   - E. Generalization and the individual instance: an example of alien orientations
   - F. Future directions

II. *The Problems of Men*
   - A. Human needs
   - B. Functional requisites of large social systems
   - C. Social problems: sources and characteristics

III. *Social Welfare As the Primary Institutional Context of Social Work*
   - A. The social functions of assistance
   - B. Social welfare objectives

IV. *The Interrelationship Between the Social Welfare Institution and the Social Structure and Culture*
   - A. The institutional location and characteristics of social welfare services in different types of social structures and cultures
   - B. Structured inequality: its special significance for social welfare and social work
     - 1. Two specific aspects
       - a. The poor
       - b. Racial and ethnic minorities

V. *The Place of Social Work in Institutional Contexts Other than Social Welfare*

VI. *Changes in the Social Welfare Institution*
   - A. The sociocultural determinants of changes in the social welfare institution
     - 1. Social change: sources, theories, process, and instrumentalties

2. Determinants of changes in the social welfare ideology
a. Specification of the social change objective
(1) Concept of social change
(2) Quest for understanding
(a) Detection, measurement, and prediction of social change
(b) Basic questions confronting the analyst of social change
(c) Progress and change

3. Theories and theorists of social change: geographic determinism, biological determinism, evolutionary tradition, social-differentiation school, the functional model, the conflict school, the social relationship model, Ferdinand Tonnies, Emile Durkheim, Karl Marx (and Friederich Engels), Robert Michels, James Burnham, William F. Ogburn

4. Dynamics of social change
a. Categories of behavior likely to show a high frequency of persistence and stability
b. Categories of behavior relatively accessible to change
c. General flexibilities in the sociocultural system
d. Inequality and injustice
e. Conflict of interest and group conflicts
f. Economic development and industrialization
(a) Appropriate goals and values
(b) Required institutional forms
(c) Organizational conditions
(d) Motivation
(e) Resources

(2) Concomitants and consequences of industrialization

(a) Changes in the economic section (including occupational structure)
(i) Development of a national commercialized market into which the subsistence sector of the society is gradually absorbed
(ii) A decrease in the proportion of the population engaged in agriculture
(iii) Increased mobility of labor
(iv) Development of a factory system
(v) Specialization and a more complex division of labor
(vi) Employment is based on performance relevant criteria and the employee relationship is of a contratual character
(vii) Development of a relatively complex distribution system
(viii) Continuing technological advances (at

an increasing rate), including automation at a later stage
(ix) The necessity for investment capital
(x) Changes in the standard of living and distribution of income
(xi) The rise of labor protests and a labor movement
(b) Population and growth
(c) Growth in urban areas
(d) Changes in patterns of stratification
(e) Growth in importance and size of organizations
(f) Changes in sociocultural aspects
(i) Changes and organization and character of family life
(ii) Changes in social controls
(iii) Development of "organic solidarity" and "achieved" relationships
(iv) Increased diversity of norms and behavioral alternatives
(v) Increased importance of secondary relationships
(vi) Certain social and psychological problems such as alienation
(vii) Increasing importance of education, transportation, and communications media
(viii) Increased distinction between work and leisure
(ix) Increase in interest groups and associational activities
(x) Changes in value systems and thought processes
(g) The great significance of the state in industrial societies
(h) Important role of the military
g. Urbanization
h. Demographic changes
i. Acculturation
j. Innovations
k. The "organization" revolution
l. Leadership
m. Ideologies (including religious thought and nationalism)
n. Social movements
o. Law
p. Education
q. Rising expectations and an awareness of "underdevelopment"
r. Incompatibilities
s. The "overwhelming events"

        - t. Purposeful intervention
        - u. Social-psychological factors

- B. Forces and phenomena that inhibit change
    - 1. General tendencies toward inflexibility in sociocultural systems
    - 2. Structural patterns (class, power, arrangements, invested interests)
    - 3. Primary groups
    - 4. Possession of major instruments of physical coercion
    - 5. Law
    - 6. Absence of effective leadership
    - 7. Ideological resistance
    - 8. Isolation
    - 9. Cultural traditions, ethnocentricities, and sense of uniqueness
    - 10. Character and extent of education
    - 11. Social-psychological factors
        - a. Communication problem
        - b. Fatalism and psychological insecurity
        - c. Circumscribed ingroup identification
        - d. Acceptance of traditional authority
        - e. Habituation
        - f. Learning problems

- C. Induced social change
    - 1. Innovation
    - 2. Acculturation
    - 3. Bilateral and international assistance
    - 4. Military intervention and economic domination
    - 5. Social movements
        - a. Social movement and social change
            - (1) The concept of social movements
            - (2) Functions of social movements
            - (3) Characteristics of social movements
            - (4) Certain of the conditions associated with the emergence of social movements.
                - (a) Extensive discontent combined with a sense of new possibilities
                - (b) Improvements in conditions and the presence of rising expectations followed by either (1) a sharp reversal of the advances or (2) the development of a marked gap between the extent of structural change and the character and rate of the climb (usually quite steep) of the pattern of expectations.
                - (c) The loss of the "holding power" of existing institutions, norms, and values for significant population groups, coupled with adherence to

        new "meanings" and loyalty to "nonconforming" membership and/or reference groups
      (5) Generalizations about dynamic elements involved in contemporary youthful activism and dissent
      (6) The destiny of social movements
        (a) Ideology
        (b) Leadership
        (c) Tactics
        (d) Organization
        (e) Countermeasures
      (7) Similarities among social movements
      (8) Evaluation of social movements
    6. Legal enactment
      (1) The concept of law—differentiation of legal norms from other types of social norms
      (2) The functions of law
      (3) The sources of law
      (4) The role of law in social change
        (a) Law and the sociocultural milieu
        (b) Assumptions and hypotheses regarding the operation of law
        (c) Conditions limiting the impact of law on social change

D. Indicators of social change
  1. Ideas and circumstances
    a. Ideas and the social structure
    b. The "sociology of knowledge" approach, its uses and limitations
    c. The "psychology of belief"
    d. The concept of ideology
    e. Applications of the sociology of knowledge to social work

E. The historical development of social welfare, social services, and social work
  1. In addition to the usual material covered, the following content items should also be included as an integral part of the historical development:
    a. The conditions, roles, and contributions and significance of oppressed and exploited (impaired status) groups in relation to social welfare and social work
    b. The immigrant in American life
    c. History, art and literature of social protest
    d. The romantic impulse in social reform and social reconstruction
    e. The rational, nonrational, and irrational in history

VI. *The Service Function of the Social Welfare Professions*
  A. The problems to which social welfare programs are addressed

B. Varied perceptions and evaluations of the social welfare programs by significant publics

C. The policy framework of social welfare programs
  1. Determinants of social welfare policies
    a. Values and goals
    b. Power and interests
    c. Elites, classes, and policy-making
    d. The participation of users of services (actual or potential) in policy-making
  2. The relationship between social welfare policies and policies in other sectors of society
  3. Similarities and differences between social welfare programs in the United States and those in other countries
  4. The organization of social welfare programs
    a. The delivery of social services
      (1) Auspices (public-voluntary)
      (2) The system of social services
      (3) Relations to other systems
      (4) Goals
      (5) Types
      (6) Difficulties
      (7) Outcomes
      (8) Alternatives
  5. Selected specific programs of social services and their relationship to other related programs, outcomes, and alternatives

D. The contemporary sociocultural milieu of social welfare and social work (including protest and alienation in the contemporary world)

E. Consideration of outrageous hypotheses regarding social welfare, social work, and the sociocultural context

VII. *The Social Control Function of the Social Welfare Professions*
  A. The normative component in the definition and evaluation of role performance
  B. Implementation of the social control function of the social welfare institution, including the processes and methods by which social control is achieved

VIII. The Ideology of Social Work—Social Work's "System of Orientation"

  A. The goals of social work

  B. The "good" society

  C. Self-actualization: the human potential and its limitations

IX. *Application of the Principles of Scientific Analysis to Study of the Social Welfare Institution*

  A. Different levels of analysis to which phenomena can be fruitfully subjected

B. The differing degrees of reliability of knowledge about the social welfare institution

C. Problems and requirements posed by the plethora of sociocultural variables

D. Possibilities for generalizations pertaining to the social welfare institution

E. Function and utility of theory in the analysis of the social welfare institution

F. Science as the basic force in the contemporary world

G. Science and social policy

H. Science, values, and goals

X. *Social Work As a Vocational Alternative*

A. Fields of social work practice

B. Roles of the social worker in the modern world

XI. The Social Welfare Professions as Professions (Similarities and Differences)

A. The nature of professions and professionalization

B. Organization of services

C. Professional organization

D. Images and evaluations by various publics and society as a whole

E. Ideologies

F. Methods

G. Characteristics of users of service

H. Relationships and roles of professionals and nonprofessionals

I. Career, career choice, and educational lines—typical and atypical

XII. *Interpersonal Competence As a Condition for Effective Role Performance*

A. Components of interpersonal competence

B. Conditions for the development of components of interpersonal competence

XIII. *The Person As a Role Performer*

XIV. *Requirements for and Problems in the Performance of Critical Roles by Users of Service*

A. Requirements

B. Problems in role performance

C. Deviant Behavior, normality, abnormality

D. Social functioning, role performance, and social change

XV. *Requirements for and Problems in the Performance of Roles in the Professional Relationship*

A. Professional socialization

B. An adequate "system of orientation" (including, among other elements, attitudes, values, and knowledge of the way in which people learn)

C. Self-understanding (including values)

D. Personal and social awareness (cognitive and emotional) and the desire to act on such awareness

E. Ability and desire to take positions in a skillful and responsible manner in the face of opposition

F. Verbal and nonverbal communication skills required for the provision of services

G. In-depth mastery of some aspect of social welfare, social services, or social work

H. Acquisition of professional discipline

XVI. *The Perspectives and Theoretical Orientations from Which Groups May Be Studied*

XVII. *The Structure and Function of Groups Basic to Social Work*

A. The relationship between those groups basic to social work and the sociocultural milieu

B. Groups basic to social work, as systems of social interaction and as subcultures

XVIII. *The Group Aspects of Social Work Practice*

XIX. *The Group Member As a Person*

XX. *The Society and Community as a Component*

A. The structure, organization, processes, and normative systems of the society and community; the subsystems and subcultures and their varying power, exceptations, interests, values, and perceptions

B. The society and community as a source of authority and resources

C. The society and community as a source of problems and difficulties in social functioning

XXI. *Organization of the Provision of Services*

A. The social agency as a component—as a social system and subculture

1. Functions
2. Impact of the goals and ideology of the social agency on the provision of services
3. Service programs offered

        4. Organization and policy determination process
        5. External relationships
    - B. The entrepreneurial model

XXII. *The Social Worker As a Component*

- A. Basic professional roles of the social worker
- B. The social worker and the problems of men

XXIII. *The User of Service As a Component*

- A. Community perceptions and expectation and the expectations and perceptions of the user of service
- B. Nature of the user of service
    - 1. Structure and dynamics: understanding the characteristics of macro and and micro systems
    - 2. Life styles
    - 3. Needs for service
        - a. Sources of potential or actual threats of limitations
        - b. Resources and limitations
    - 4. Rights and responsibilities of the user of service

XXIV. *Providing Service as a Component*

- A. Types of transactional relationships; authority in such relationships: use and misuse
- B. Social work intervention: purpose, methods, and requirements (knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values) and the nature of the transactional systems
- C. Linkages between problems, system types, roles, and interventive methods

XXV. *Educational and Vocational Opportunities in Social Work*

XXVI. *Issues and Trends in Professional Social Work*

XXVII. *Evaluation of the Services Provided as a Component*

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APPENDIX B

SOCIAL WELFARE AS A SOCIAL INSTITUTION

John M. Romanyshyn

The following concepts are organized around the outline of objectives provided by Herbert Bisno in *The Place of the Undergraduate Curriculum in Social Work Education* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1959), pp. 108–146. This volume continues to be an invaluable reference for those seeking guidance in the development of an undergraduate curriculum in social welfare. The following outline is not a course syllabus. Instead it demonstrates the way one might relate course material to the king of objectives Bisno suggests as appropriate for study of the social welfare institution.

The syllabus prepared by Steinman (this volume, Appendix D) in like manner relates concepts on the social welfare professions to Bisno's objectives VI–VIII (pp. 135–140). A comparison of the following material with the pages noted above may be instructive.

A list of readings for individual sections follows the outline.

I. Understanding Social Welfare As the Primary Institutional Context of Social Work.

- A. Problems in defining social welfare
  - 1. The scientific problem: What are the criteria for determining what is and is not welfare?
  - 2. The political problem: definitions have consequences.
- B. Changing conceptions of social welfare
  - 1. Welfare as charity, welfare state, welfare society
  - 2. Residual-institutional
  - 3. Charity-citizen's right
  - 4. Special-universal
  - 5. Minimum-optimum
  - 6. Individual uplift-social form
  - 7. Voluntary-public
  - 8. Local-central
  - 9. Lay-professional
- C. Attributes of social welfare
  - 1. The key word is "social," meaning (1) social auspices as opposed to market allocation of goods and services, (2) social

functioning and social services devoted to its maintenance and enhancement, (3) social action and system change.

2. Formal organization
3. Functional generalization and integrative view of human needs.[1]
4. Moral ideal. Conflicting moral evaluation of welfare reflect conflicting moral ideals: self-reliance versus interdependence and mutual aid.

D. Social welfare as social policy

1. Relationship of welfare to other forms of social policy
2. Role of values and power in allocation of resources
3. Social policy and differential advantages and disadvantages
4. The consumer and social policy
5. Impact of knowledge on social policy and the possibilities of "social intelligence"

E. Social welfare as programs and services

1. Social provisions as alternatives to market allocations of goods and services
2. Social services as efforts to support, supplement, and substitute for the family, as part of "people-changing" efforts—system maintenance and enhancement
3. Social action as efforts at system change

F. Organization of social welfare programs. Social welfare programs may be classified by (1) target population, (2) problems and "needs" addressed, (3) functions, (4) instrumental means, (5) auspices, (6) subsystems for delivery of services (e.g., public welfare, social insurance, vocational rehabilitation, mental health).

G. Social welfare, social work, social science

1. Social work as an occupation and profession operating within a social welfare institution
2. The integrative function of social work
3. Social work as a moral ideal
4. Social work and other human service professions
5. Social work and the crisis in social services
6. Social welfare, social work, and the uses of social science.

H. Social welfare expenditures

I. Who are the welfare recipients?

1. Social division of welfare
2. Fiscal welfare
3. Occupational welfare

J. The significance of our welfare vocabulary

1. Definitions of welfare have political significance
2. The need for a definition of social welfare consistent with changing social reality and democratic aspirations.

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[1] Harold L. Wilensky and Charles N. Lebeaux, *Industrial Society and Social Welfare* (New York: Free Press, 1965), Chap. 6.

II. Understanding the Interrelationship Between the Social Welfare Institution and the Social Structure and Culture

A. Social welfare in the social structure and culture; interrelationship of parts of society and culture. Our current social welfare programs developed to deal with economic insecurity, the breakdown of socialization and social control, and the decline of community that accompanied industrialization and urbanization of society. To cope with economic and social dislocations created by the industrial revolution we built a "makeshift welfare state," partly out of regard for democratic and humanitarian mores and partly to stabilize and maintain our market capitalistic system. Social welfare reflects a continuing conflict and compromise between our "organizational and humanitarian mores." [2]

B. System strains, social problems, and social welfare programs.

C. Institutional location and characteristics of social welfare services in different types of social structures and cultures.[3]

III. Understanding Changes in the Social Welfare Institution

A. Some ideas about social change

1. Efforts to resolve persistent problems in the human condition
2. Flexibilities in the system
3. Social system strains.[4] Completing principles of social organization, equality of citizenship versus inequality of class

B. Industrialization and changing social structure. Stages of economic growth [5] and development of welfare programs, modernization of society, alternations in social structure, and the need for various forms of compensating and stabilizing social welfare measures. Democratization of society, tension between inequality of class and equality of citizenship as a major dynamic for change in welfare programs.

C. Historical development of social welfare. Early roots in mutual aid, religious charity, and the English Poor Law; industrialization, middle-class benevolence, and the democratization of charity; social welfare and the "golden mean of social reform"; changing functions of government; laissez faire to welfare capitalism; changing social welfare ideologies; end of an era in social welfare, the challenge of social development, and need for a new political theory.

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[2] Willard Waller, "Social Problems and the Mores," *American Sociological Review,* Vol. 1, No. — (December 1936), pp. 922–933.

[3] The writer has found it useful to draw on material from Carl G. Uhr, *Sweden's Social Security System* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1966). Differences in family policy between the United States and Sweden are striking. It is also useful to draw the distinction between American provisions for "family welfare" and the Mexican Social Security Centers for Family Welfare. *See* Social Security Centers for Family Welfare, (Mexico: Social Security Institution of Mexico, 1961). For some helpful suggestions, *see* Katherine A. Kendall (ed.), *Teaching of Comparative Social Welfare* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, Document 90–600–28.)

[4] Wilbert E. Moore, "A Reconsideration of Theories of Social Change," *American Sociological Review,* Vol. 25, No. 4 (December 1960), pp. 810–818.

[5] W. W. Rostow, The Stages of Economic Growth (Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1916).

IV. Understanding the Functions of Social Welfare Programs and Professions

A. Functions and dysfunctions of social welfare programs; manifest and latent functions.

B. System maintenance (social control and planned change as functions of social welfare programs.)

C. Varied perceptions and evaluations of functions of social welfare programs; the role of ideology and interest groups.

D. Understanding problems to which the social welfare programs are addressed.

1. The power of definitions. The way problems are defined determine the strategies to be used (e.g., poverty as income inequality, as social incompetence, as political powerlessness, and so on.

2. Social problems versus social issues. A "problem" focus tends to isolate the problem condition (e.g., poverty, delinquency, mental illness) from the functioning of the larger social system and may lead to an acceptance of the definition of the problem as given. To focus on social issues is to search out the social process whereby individuals are recruited, labeled, and treated as problems to society, to examine critically the norms defining the problem, and to ask whether the system can be changed.

3. Social problems and social structure. Social problems are interrelated and may be seen as consequences of economic, social, and political arrangements. For example, there are links between occupational status of lower-class males, family structure and socialization, various forms of social pathology, and the failure of the political system adequately to recognize and respond to symptoms of basic maldistribution of resources and life opportunities. Major issues concern the redress of social, economic and political inequities and the means by which and degree to which these may be achieved.[6]

4. Levels of analysis of social problems. Problems may be analyzed and dealt with at various levels. For example, educational failure may be related to (a) family socialization, (b) peer group affiliation, (c) structure of the public school and process for screening students into and out of "college-bound" curricula, (a) the job market and life opportunities readily

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[6] Melvin L. Kohn, *Class and Conformity* (Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press, 1969; Elliot Liebow, *Tally's Corner* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1966); Donald G. McKinley, *Social Class and Family Life* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1964); Hyman Rodman, "Family and Social Pathology in the Ghetto," *Science*, Vol. 161 (August 23, 1968), pp. 756–762.

perceived and available to youths variously located in the social class system.[7]

I. Determinants of social welfare policy

    1. Social welfare policy and the power to control the definition of the problem
    2. Knowledge, values, and politics in policy determination
    3. The consumer and social welfare policy
    4. Social welfare policy and social intelligence
    5. Relationship between social welfare policies and policies in other sectors of society. For example, efforts to control inflation with consequent social costs in increased unemployment and the like is a good illustration of a link between economic policy and social welfare. Failure to develop adequate income and employment policies has forced an excessive and inappropriate reliance on residual social provisions and services.[8]
    6. The issue of an income versus a social service strategy.[9]

F. Organization of social welfare programs

    1. The multiple and overlapping social welfare systems
    2. Problems and issues in organization of social welfare
    3. The relationship between agency structure and social policy

V. Understanding the Social Control Function of the Social Welfare Professions (This objective is treated in IV B.)

VI.–VIII. Understanding Social Welfare Professions (See this volume, Appendix D, p. 288)

IX. Understanding Application of Principles of Scientific Analysis to Study of Social Welfare Institutions (This objective is treated in I G.)

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[8] For an excellent statement on the relationship between economic policies and social services *see* Alvin S. Schorr, "Social Services Are No Substitute for Economic Policies," *Social Work*, Vol. 14, No. 2 (April 1969), pp. 2, 128.

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APPENDIX C

SOME BASIC ASSUMPTIONS IN SUPPORT OF AN INCOME STRATEGY

John M. Romanyshyn

Following are some assumptions to be examined critically and challenged. They are not intended as final "truths." On the other hand, the supporting evidence should not be ignored. Relevant references are cited by number, and refer to the list of suggested readings, which contains material in defense of an income strategy as well as alternate or conflicting points of view.

I. Whatever other problems the poor may have, poverty is, first of all, lack of income. (For alternative views of poverty *see* 8.) Income is essential to meet the basic needs of individuals and families and an adequate level of income is required for participation as a normal citizen in almost all forms of social life.

A. Economic poverty, when accompanied by malnutrition and inadequate prenatal care, is associated with high risk of complications of pregnancy, prematurity, and congenital defect (1; 2; 5, p. 91; 13; 35).

Basic needs must be met before individuals can develop higher level functions (3, p. 8; 21).

C. Stable income is related to stable family life (32) and a significant capital investment is necessary to move families out of poverty 34, p. 47).

D. Economic poverty leads to social impoverishment (18).

E. Money is freedom and power—freedom to exercise choice and power to make decisions governing one's life.

F. The poor can be defined as that group in society with the least freedom of choice and the least power to control their own fate—e.g., inadequate income=poor housing=subjection to coercive power of landlords and the inferior education that ends to characterize schools in the slums.

G. Research on efforts to assist families living in the most severe poverty suggests that without adequate income there is little hope of altering conditions that undermine family stability (4). On the other hand, this is not to suggest that adequate income alone assures family stability, but it may be a necessary precondition.

II. Poverty needs to be redefined as income inequality and income redistribution must be seen as a basic social welfare strategy.

A. Poverty in the United States is relative deprivation and will not be "solved" simply by lifting all families and individuals up to the current poverty line (25).

> Social scientists have failed to recognize that one of the crucial problems for understanding modern industrial society is to know what resources are necessary for a person before he can behave in ways that will allow him to become a full member of that society. What has become clear in the past decade is that the relative deprivation of the underclass goes to the heart of their marginality and alienation. No matter how much the incomes of the underclass rise, so long as there exists in the society groups of people whose level of living is far below the going average, we will continue to have misery and the problems of an underclass. [27, p. 9]

B. Poverty may best be understood as an issue in social justice

1. The poor are so located in the social structure that they are effectively barred from access to adequate income and other social rewards.

2. While the top one-fifth of income receivers get 45 percent of personal income, the bottom one-fifth receive only 5 percent, and this distribution of income has not changed in the past two decades (23).

3. Since those at the bottom of society, a disproportionate number of whom are blacks and members of other minority groups (e.g., 10 percent of white children and 42 percent of nonwhite children are defined as poor), have been placed there through a social process over which they can exercise no effective control, does society have an obligation to compensate for their past injuries? Should part of such compensation be in the form of income redistribution?

4. Since income is socially produced, what share should those at the bottom of society receive as a citizen right?

III. Adequate employment opportunities as well as adequate transfer of income is essenital to deal with the economics of poverty and with its social consequences (31, chap. 2 and 3).

A. The poor are effectively barred from decent work opportunities and when forced to rely on public assistance they simply move from a damaged work role to a damaged welfare role. Often they occupy both.

B. Work is central since it is the link between family and society.

1. There is a link among occupational status, family structure, child-rearing patterns, and the life-style of the poor (17, 19, 20, 32).

2. Work provides material, social, and psychic resources (money, status, self-esteem, power, and autonomy) essential for family formation, stability, and development.

3. The female-based household may be seen as a "solution" to the occupation-earner problem of the lower-class male, and in this sense it represents a means of coping with economic

survival, an adaptation rather than pathology. This family structure, however, may be dysfunctional for rearing children for upward mobility (32; for a somewhat different view, *see* 11).

4. Child-rearing values and practices reflect the occupational status of the major breadwinner. Autonomy in work leads to child-rearing that stresses autonomy and independence. Authoritarian attitudes in child rearing reflect the limited freedom characteristic of the occupational role of the breadwinner (16, 20).

IV. The poverty cycle can best be understood and dealt with as a structural rather than a cultural phenomenon.

A. It is the social position of the poor, primarily a result of their occupational status, that accounts for the cycle of poverty, family breakdown, and the related social problems that seem to accompany the life-style of many in the lower class (19, 32; *see* 1, 2, 10, 12, 26, 39).

B. The so-called culture of poverty may be seen as an adaptation to economic and social deprivation, a means of coping with survival, and a protective life-style that shields people from insults to self-esteem (19; 28, pp. 16–17; for a different view, *see* 10, 14, 39).

C. It is doubtful that adaptive behavior patterns of the poor can be changed without first altering their position in the social structure (19, 20, 32). The social position of the poor, however, might be altered by a social action strategy (9, 36).

V. Employment strategies are a means of dealing with the structural aspects of poverty to the degree they can expand the opportunity structure for the poor.

A. The need for full employment (15).

B. Manpower development and on-the-job training (41).

C. Elimination of arbitrary credentials that bar the poor from decent employment (e.g., discrimination by employers and unions, arbitrary educational requirements that do not measure job performance capabilities) (24).

D. New careers in the human services (31).

E. Guaranteed employment—the government as the employer of last resort (30).

VI. Right to an adequate income is essential

A. Employment alone cannot meet the income needs of many individuals and families in an industrial society

1. In an industrial society wages are distributed in accordance with work while family needs depend on the number of children and other responsibilities.

2. Subemployment is a major factor in poverty and will continue to exist (42).

3. A third of the children defined as poor live in families with a male breadwinner working year-round but earning wages below the poverty line.

4. Those outside the labor force—the aged, disabled, dependent children, women who are heads of households and responsible for care of children—have no way of getting income except through an income transfer program. Most of these persons are not likely to become self-supporting.

B. The issue is the right to socially adequate income, i.e., enough money to participate in society as a citizen (27, 40; for a different point of view see Walensky).

C. Income maintenance programs may be defined as investments in people, in family stability, and in social development (34, 8, chap. 4).

D. Current proposals for new forms of income maintenance programs accept the inadequacy of the current welfare system (7, 22, 23, 33, 38).

E. A new welfare rights movement is mobilizing support for a citizen's right to adequate income that goes beyond the proposed Nixon Family Assistance Plan. (For different perspectives *see* 6 and 31, chap. 2)

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APPENDIX D

SYLLABUS FOR HUMAN SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS, PROFESSIONS, AND CONSUMERS

Richard Steinman

This syllabus is outlined in such a way as to articulate with Herbert Bisno, The Place of the Undergraduate Curriculum in Social Work Education, Vol. II of the Curriculum Study (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1969), pp. 135–139. This is the syllabus for a second-semester course, usually taken in the senior year. A syllabus for a first-semester senior course, "Methods of Social Work Intervention," is in progress.

Many persons and the writings of many scholars have influenced the formulation of this syllabus over the last 4½ years. Particular appreciation is expressed for the inspiration and contributions of the author's students, John M. Romanyshyn, Donald Traunstein, and Stephen Rose. Above all, the syllabus has been affected by the social work profession—with all its foibles and potential.

I. Understanding the Social Welfare Professions as Professions.

  A. Parallel and contrasting attributes of human service professions, organizations, and consumers.

    1. Orientation of the professions toward social control and social change.

      a. Historically the bulwark of the status quo, the professions tend to represent the most conservative elements in society, give structure to society and help preserve it, contribute to its forms, suppress the potentially dysfunctional, and sponsor the major institutions of social control.

      b. Social change has occurred with gathering frequency during the eras since the modern professions began to emerge from monarchical societies in which illiteracy and class-consciousness were widespread. The professions have come more and more to serve as major routes for upward social mobility.

      c. There is likely to be inherent tension between the historic mission of the professions in general and the values of the social welfare professions in particular. Professions such as social work, public health nursing, and teaching are expected to be oriented to change—change on behalf of those in society with the least power and other resources.

d. Each of these younger professions has its own conservatism, but also, although in much smaller proportions, a strong revolutionary streak. They are therefore caught on the horns of the dilemma of dualism: on the one hand, the desire to kick over the traces and on the other, knowledge of the implications of a sharp break with the past.

e. The social revolution of our time has touched the professions as well; in ways "different from any we have known before . . the professions themselves have come to harbor a growing number of people whose sympathy for the new social movement . . . has led them to see the professions to which they belong as instruments of unresponsive conversatism." But the professions must be sure that the cure being offered "for intellectual teetotalism" does not turn out to be open "for intellectual alcoholism."

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2. Illustrative typologies of human service professions, bureaucracies, and consumers.

   a. There is fairly universal agreement supporting Greenwood's "attributes of a profession," which the writer has rendered in the flow chart shown in Figure 1. Many occupations are likely to have some of these attributes, but only when all five are operating may an occupation be regarded as at least a marginal profession.

   b. Rational bureaucracy: Weber's ideal type construction.

      (1) To Weber's criteria—hierarchy, career orientation, division of labor, rules, reports, impersonality, and expertise—the writer and his students have added goal orientation, survival over long periods of time, the legitimation of goals (and structures for attaining goals) in the form of a constitution, and bylaws or their equivalent.

      (2) Limitations of the typology: recognition was not given by Weber to the following:

         (a) The potency of informal organization (Blau and Scott): the degree to which this concept, used instead of a notion of intraorganizational political process, impedes rather than facilitates an understanding of organizations (Bucher and Stelling).

         (b) Bureaucratization of personality, goal displacement, trained incapacity (Merton).

         (c) Weber focused on the administrative structure of bureaucracy to the exclusion of other aspects (Engel).

         (d) The contrasting impacts of cosmopolitan versus local orientations and the degree to which bureaucracy encourages the formation of the latter.

(3) Alternative or adapted models for structuring complex organizations are briefly considered, such as these:

(a) Models of bureaucracy that permit conflict (Litwak).

(b) New patterns of management that reverse the flow of authority and decision-making from only downward to both downward and upward (Likert).

(c) Structures proposed for postindustrial organization that transcend the reputed obsolescence of bureaucracy (Bennis).

(d) Increased productivity through increased autonomy (Blau and Scott; Simon, Smithburg, and Thompson): by substituting obtuse for acute spans of control supervisors automatically substitute impersonal for more personal authority (see II, F6 below).

c. Consumers

(1) A typology of the American lower classes, based on family and economic variables (S. M. Miller), is offered to students primarily as an alternative to preaviling stereotypes.

(2) Middle-class consumers of the human services will be considered briefly by means of the perspectives provided by the following: ESEA Title I (cooptation of resources intended for the poor), Friedson (the educated client's resistance to professional authority), Harrington (the functions that bifurcating society into "two Americas" serves for the middle class), Hollingshead and Redlich (the influence of social class on differentials in mental health service provision), Hughes, through Rainwater ("good people and dirty work," see II, F11), Homans and Blau ("social behavior as exchange"), M. Schwartz ("containing the poor: the slum as a closed institution: unpublished), and Walinsky (maintaining the poor as an indicator of the relative affluence of the new middle class).

(3) Blau and Scott's *cui bono* typology makes it possible to contrast the vulnerability (through constitutional powerlessness of human service consumers with the right to govern that is constitutionally guaranteed to the "prime beneficiaries" of all other types of formal organization.

Type of formal organization	*Examples*	*Prime beneficiaries*	*Constitutionally guaranteed right to govern*
Mutual benefit	Union, church	Members	Members.
Business	Industry	Owners	Owners.
Service organization	Hospital, social agency	Public-in-contact	Trustees.
Commonweal organization	Army, legislature	Public-at-large	Public-at-large.

B. The professions and the poor.
  1. Professions in a changing society
    a. Definition: knowing, doing, helping (Merton).
    b. Service or self-seeking?
    c. Social change: the end of authority?
      (1) Toward a professional society.
      (2) All authority under attack, including professional expertise.

  2. Criticisms of the human service professions
    a. Cashing in
    b. Cooling out
    c. Creaming off
    d. Colonialism

  3. The powerful and the powerless
    a. The relationship of the professional to the poor mirrors society's image of the poor.
    b. Professions have tended to institutionalize the view of the poor as inferior, reflecting the colonial attitude characteristic of the Western world.

  4. The new consumer revolt: shared power
    a. Professions must now share power and develop a reciprocal relationship with "clients" as persons and citizens.
    b. Part of the historic trend toward including larger segments of the population in the status of persons and citizens.

  5. Professions and social reform
    a. The need for expert knowledge to guide reform.
    b. Professions have a positive role in maintaining tension between social and professional values (Frankel).

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C. Insights concerning professional autonomy and prestige and their implications for consumers, as seen through a comparative view of three selected professions.

1. Postulate: There is an association between a given profession's location in the social structure and the nature of its service delivery.

2. A high correlation exists between the degree of bureaucratization and the degree of social status and autonomy of a given profession.

3. There is a fairly strong correlation between the degree of a profession's social status and the following variables identified by the writer, his students, and guest discussants from selected professions:

a. Professionalizing variables (Greenwood): the degree to which

(1) A body of knowledge is systematic, theoretical, and *unique*.

(2) Society exercises control over the profession (through bureaucratization).

(3) A long period of time characterizes the education of future practitioners.

b. "Folk" variables: the degree to which

(1) The public regards itself as competent at what is "professed": "familiarity breeds contempt."

(2) The profession has a hoary tradition and is preferred by consumers.

(3) The profession is perceived as dealing with matters of life and death.

c. Other:

(1) Exclusivism: the extent to which the profession's services are largely reserved to clients with higher or lower social status. This variable appears to be in direct conflict with that of universality.

(2) Universality: the extent to which the profession's services are both available to and needed by the entire population. Universality would appear to obviate stigmatization. The enigma is that a profession whose services are universally required—for example, elementary and secondary education—appears to have relatively low social status and autonomy.

(3) The expertise of the practitioner in direct contact with the client: there is a positive correlation between the level of a profession's status and the expertise of its members characteristically assigned to work directly with clients (Austin).

(4) The risk taken by the practitioner to achieve

membership in the profession with higher status and greater autonomy:

    (a) Long-term investment of personal resources to achieve professional status.
    (b) Investment of personal resources in order to establish oneself in practice (the only exception to this is higher education).
    (c) This usually involves an entrepreneurial structure.

(5) Sex: membership in all of the higher status and more autonomous professions is predominantly male; with the exception of pharmacy and the clergy, the converse tends to be true of the lower status and more dependent professions.

(6) Accountability: owing to greater specificity of function, concreteness of professional "product," and immediacy with which type consumer "gets results" from the higher status professions, the consumer is better able to judge the quality of the professional service delivered.

4. Occupational choice and occupational selection. As individuals recruit and select, consistent trends emerge:
    a. Demography: sex, age, race, educational achievement, socioeconomic background (Davis, Gockel, Pins).
    b. Social and occupational values: discernible trends emerge, such as preferring extrinsic versus intrinsic rewards, work with people rather than things, working conditions affording autonomy versus dependency and so on (Kohn and More, Rosenberg, Gockel, Henry, Steinman (unpublished), McLeod and Meyer, Davis).

5. Consideration of three professions selected for comparative purposes.
    a. Selection was on the basis of contrasts in degree of social status and autonomy.
    b. Comparison of the structure of practice within each profession is achieved through the application of role-set theory (Merton).
    c. As the contrasting structures emerge implications for society in general and consumers in particular are considered.

6. Emerging hypotheses:
    a. Lower status professions are even less likely to innovate than those with higher status because they tend to lack the autonomy requisite to innovation.
    b. The quality of professional service to consumers will be enhanced as the autonomy of the lower status professions is somewhat increased and that of the higher status professions is somewhat reduced.

c. Devising methods to recruit "a new breed" who are deviant for the giving profession (Roe) will promote dynamic development for the professions (and therefore, presumably, better professional service to consumers).

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II. *Understanding, Valuing, Advocating, and Identifying with the Ideology of Social Work.*

A. Contending functions of the professions.

1. Promoting and preserving the social order.
2. Responsibility promoting alterations in the social fabric.
3. For a few professions, the goal of altering aspects of the social fabric dysfunctional to "the powerless" in society is (or at some time in their history has been) central to their values. For most the value has low, if any, esteem.
4. As social forces evolve and change within society, society's expectations of the social professions change also, sometimes influencing a profession to change the priorities by which it orders its values.

B. Intercorrelation of social work's assumptions, values, goals, functions, and methods—and changes in these over time.

1. Impact of the "residual" view on goals: Social work practice has been most compatible with a "residual" view. An analogy between the clinical and the residual views of human service is proposed for critical assessment.

2. Going beyond the "residual" to the "institutional" (i.e., "developmental") view.

   a. Based on the experience of advanced social welfare states (such as in Scandinavia), one may predict that social welfare provisions will increasingly be seen as essential components of modern life ("developmental").

   b. Examples are introduced of alternative modalities through which this may take place (i.e., child development centers); the concept of "social utilities" is introduced (Kahn).

   c. Postulate: Modes created to deal with human need are closely associated with a society's assumptions about the causes of such need.

C. Conceptions of social work. Several major conceptions of social work and social welfare are introduced and compared, for example, those of Boehm, Kahn, Wilensky and Lebeaux, and Romanyshyn.

D. How well must the learner perform? (In the interests of brevity, the following, offered here for illustrative purposes, will not be listed, although it will be included in every unit.) He must be able to illustrate one or more aspects of social work practice congruent with inconsistent with social work functions and values as expressed earlier.

1. Congruent: Social work was one of only two professions publicly espousing Medicare as early as 1958; some social agencies were among the first corporations to integrate their staffs racially.

2. Congruent and inconsistent: social control of families receiving Aid to Families with Dependent children versus the professional value of personal freedom; expressed belief in client self-determination versus objections to the client "controlling the professional relationship" (see II F 7).

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E. Contemporary strains among human service organizations, professions, and consumers: an overview.

1. Alternatives to trained incapacity and goal displacement.
2. "Cause and function": the influence of prevailing practice method on policies and resource allocation.
3. Emphasizing potential versus emphasizing pathology in the conception of human service.
4. An entrepreneurial versus a bureaucratic model for service delivery.
5. The impact of the concept of "woman's role" on both consumers and practitioners of human service.
6. Individual versus structural definitions of the situation.
7. The influence of administrative structure and style on productivity: impersonal authority versus close supervision.
8. Myth and reality in self-determination and manipulation.
9. Professional authority and consumer participation.
10. The professional culture, "self-evaluation," and accountability: the issue of contract.
11. Professionalism, industrialization, and bureaucracy: articulation and tension.
12. Socioeconomic class and the nature of professional service: "silk stocking" and "blue-collar" professionals.
13. Transforming some of the assumptions and attitudes of the middle class as one means of diminishing structured inequality in society.

Students are invited to supplement the list of "strains." Based on this overview, the class is asked to choose five of the strains for detailed treatment, and the balance of the course proceeds on the basis of their choices.

F. Contemporary strains of specific interest to and selected by the class: an in-depth view.

1. Alternatives to trained incapacity and goal displacement.
    a. For most human beings change is uncertain and uncomfortable, but it is nevertheless possible for man to tolerate such uncertainty.
    b. Resistance to change has significant components of self-protection in it; since change impels one toward the unknown, resistance to change obviates the necessity of facing and responding to the unknown.
    c. Professional people in particular are socialized to suspend, substantially, the self-interest inherent in self-protection. By keeping the needs of clients in the forefront they demonstrate a capacity continually to adapt to each presenting situation. Flexibly and creatively, they draw on their instruments (tools)—theory and method—so as to evolve the most pertinent response to the changing reality represented by the social situation of each client system.
    d. Human service professionals, especially in the younger professions, are, however, usually socialized not only to professional but to bureaucratic norms as well. This may

render them susceptible to trained incapacity and goals displacement.

e. Trained incapacity occurs when the skills and procedures originally mastered are not revised or relinquished by the practitioner even though they become less relevant to a rapidly changing social reality. Goals displacement occurs when instrumental values become terminal values (Merton), that is, when means (i.e., professional theory and method) become transformed into ends.

f. Students are encouraged to guard against the development of these dysfunctions in their own practice, through the following:

(1) Continued learning, as new theory and techniques evolve.

(2) Cultivating a cosmopolitan rather than a local orientation (see 10 below).

(3) Avoiding having their libidinal gratification derive disproportionately from vocational achievement.

(4) Regarding all that they hold intellectually and methodologically dear as, at best, hypotheses susceptible of being revised or rejected at any point in their development.

(5) Continually putting the assumptions of their profession and work setting to the test of these two theories.

(6) Considering as a model (in the form of a teaching record) the practice of one graduate social work student who, in one short summer, succeeded in setting into motion a dynamic process of agency reassessment of encrusted practices detrimental to some clients.

(7) Jealously guarding their values against erosion; wearing the epithet "idealistic student" or "youth" as a badge of honor rather than a source of embarassment.

(8) Feeling themselves a part of a significant cultural force, namely, young people throughout the nation who are raising fundamental questions about institutions and practices previously considered beyond challenge.

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2. *"Cause and function": the influence of prevailing practice method on policies and resource allocation*

a. The history of at least the newer professions (i.e., nursing, social work, physical therapy) tends to be characterized by

(1) An initial leadership with "a cause" ("a movement directed toward the elimination of an entrenched evil," Lee), succeeded by

(2) A second wave of leadership that strives to consolidate the impact of the initial leaders by clarifying and systematizing resultant "functions" ("organized efforts incorporated into the machinery of community life," Lee).

b. The elaboration of functions may often be the only way to institutionalize a cause.

c. In the process, however, functions may also be exploited to legitimate a cause (or the occupation promoting it).

d. Functions may serve the important purpose of codifying knowledge and experience that has been generated by a cause.

e. Such codification is regarded as imperative by those second-wave leaders seeking professional recognition from academe, legislatures, and the more established professions.

f. The costs as well as benefits resulting from this process should be carefully weighed.

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3. Emphasizing potential versus emphasizing pathology in the conception of human service

a. The clinical model—techniques that assume the existence of a problem and then search out its causes—was first elaborated within medicine. Because of its age and prestige the clinical model has been widely disseminated among the younger professions.

b. The clinical model takes potential into account, but does not emphasize it. Its tenacity can in part be explained as follows:

(1) The clinical model has become profoundly associated with a "fee for service" basis for medical economics (i.e., "profit").

(2) The pathology emphasis tends to reinforce dependence on the professional's skills: "anyone" can affirm health, but only he can cure sickness.

c. Conversely, other methods, usually characterized by the term "development" (see e), take pathology into account, but, emphasize potential.

d. Yet even in the values and methods of elementary and secondary teaching—a profession deeply absorbed in promoting development—an increasing emphasis on pathology may be discerned. Thus the gap may be closing between teaching and the younger clinical professions—clinical psychology, audiology, vocational rehabilitation.

e. Professions, specialties, or methods emphasizing potential are notable, even if relatively few:

(1) The "new" rehabilitation professions or specialties—occupational therapy, physical therapy, psychiatry—concentrate on enabling clients to maximize remaining capacities.

(2) Some teaching methods focus almost exclusively on the learner's potential (i.e., Liecestershire method).

(3) The philosophy and technique of community development accept neighborhood or community problems as a given, but concentrate and draw heavily from the aggregate potential of the citizens, environment, economic, and political systems.

(4) There appears to be a striking correlation between professions that emphasize potential and methods that expect and encourage autonomous behavior on the part of clients.

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4. An entrepreneurial versus a bureaucratic model for service delivery

a. With the single exception of the church, the structure of the older professions is entrepreneurial.

b. Almost without exception, the newer professions were born within a bureaucratic mold (i.e., social work within organized charity; nursing, physical therapy, rehabilitation medicine within the military).

c. Functions and dysfunctions of the bureaucratic model:

(1) Salaried status reduces the dysfunctions associated with "fee for service" (see 3).

(2) Location in a hierarchy tends to limit autonomy and productivity (See 6).

d. Functions and dysfunctions of the entrepreneurial model:

(1) Practitioners are more directly accountable to consumers since superiors, if any, are quite removed.

(2) Suspension of self-interest may be somewhat more difficult to maintain since the practitioner's livelihood depends so directly on the delivery of each service.

e. Some evidence is presented as to an evolving merger between the two models.

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5. The impact of the concept of "woman's role" on both consumers and practitioners of human service.

a. Objective judgments about "woman's role" have been almost impossible to arrive at because present-day assumptions and practices regarding sex roles are so deeply rooted in our culture, and in our intimate, day-by-day patterns of living.

b. Evidence of woman's subordinate position exists as follows;

(1) Civilized society affords multiple hard indicators from both past and contemporary life.

(2) Contrary evidence may be deduced from prehistory in that the equal distribution of power and status between the sexes was the norm during periods of savagery and barbarism.

c. The functions and dysfunctions of the assignment of roles on the basis of sex are considered together with current efforts to eliminate sex roles.

d. The subordination of women has relevance to the social professions because theories and policies concerning human behavior and human service have been generated from a male perspective, not withstanding the facts that

(1) A majority of human service practitioners (among the lower status professions) are female and

(2) A large proportion of social and economic vulnerability in industrial society is associated either with being female or being a member of a female-headed household.

e. Implications are considered of what it is likely to mean to human service consumers and practitioners if power becomes more equally distributed between the sexes.

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6. Individual versus structural definitions of the situation.

a. Those in a position to define "the problem: have the power to propose "the solution" in accordance with their own values and interests as reflected in their definition.

b. American social policymakers have demonstrated a marked community of interests, whether they be politicians in office governing public human services, philanthropists governing voluntary human services, or human service professionals.

c. There is a strong tendency for Americans to define social problems as "private troubles" rather than "public issues" (Mills) under such influences as the puritan ethic and politicians, philanthropists, and professionals for whom the existing social order is largely functional.

d. Since the definition of "private troubles" prevails, it gives almost universal credence to assumptions that a "culture of poverty" explains individual deviance, to solutions aimed at altering it rather than the social structure, and to assigning high priorities to clinical modes of intervention.

e. Even in the midst of programs that clearly define social problems as structural in origin—such as the War on Poverty—the private troubles solutions are tenacious and have a remarkable way of surfacing.

f. Only for universal problems—those affecting the entire population—does it seem possible to make a structural solution stick:

  (1) OASDHI as a response to the great depression.

  (2) The virtual elimination of hard-core poverty in the face of World War II's production demands.

  (3) The possibility that the current uprising against pollution may save the Nation's environment.

g. Resulting hypotheses are as follows:

  (1) Only problems that unify the Nation are capable of being seen by Americans as public issues rather than private troubles.

  (2) Solutions responsive to a culture of poverty definition are essentially suspicious of some Americans and therefore divisive.

  (3) Such suspiciousness or divisiveness helps significantly to account for the emphasis on pathology rather than potential (see 3 above).

h. Cross-cultural supporting evidence: For smaller nations, cultures with populations infinitely more homogenous than America's and therefore presumably with a far greater sense of national communality, social structural solutions tend to be routine:

  (1) Several Scandinavian nations have gone "beyond the welfare state."

  (2) Community development, a modality with a marked emphasis on potential rather than pathology, not only originated within but has flourished far more within the developing nations than in the United States,

  (3) Although still a dream for Americans, a national

health service has been a reality in Britain for two decades, largely because Titmuss succeeded in getting it defined as universal.

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7. The influence of administrative structure and style upon productivity: impersonal authority versus close supervision.
    a. A profound interrelationship is proposed among the following variables:
        (1) Younger, less prestigious professions, not yet fully mandated by society.
        (2) Practice usually in the hands of beginners.
        (3) Extensive bureaucratization to provide supervision over and accountability from these beginners.

(4) Continuation of modalities intended for beginners long beyond their novitiate (goal displacement; see 1 above).

(5) Reduction in productivity and impersonality in the work place.

b. An intensive downward flow of demand constitutes close supervision. In the long run it tends to impede effective performance (Blau and Scott).

c. Detrimental effects may be noted even during graduate social work education, whose products (MSWs) appear to emerge with their sense of autonomy significantly diminished (Henry).

d. A solution currently being explored is the use of an obtuse (rather than an acute) span of control in order to promote detachment. This is expected to

(1) Reduce the resurrection of familial relationships in the work place (Polansky).

(2) Eliminate control through personal supervision.

(3) Deter subordinates from leaning too heavily on their superiors.

(4) Deter supervisors from becoming overinvolved with subordinates.

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8. Myth and reality in self-determination and manipulation.

a. Long-standing assumptions and beliefs we hold dear—assumptions we do not expect to have to prove the validity of—evolve into myths.

b. Reality if defined as a state in which assumptions are continually reevaluated under the impact of new knowledge or changing conditions, rather than being graduated to the pantheon of ideology or myth.

c. For more than thirty years the concept of self-determination has been discussed in the social work literature. According to Keith-Lucas, the final decision as to what forms the basis for client decision lies with the social worker acting in the name of the community or of the profession, who may decide that a particular decision is too vital for the client to be allowed to make.

d. The tenacity of the principle, even in the fact of contradictory practice universally experienced, is examined in terms of the following:

(1) The possibility that some genuine instances of self-determination do exist (at least from time to time).

(2) Organizational secrets (see 10 below).

(3) Lack of fit with the concept of professional authority.

(4) Alternatives that more pragmatically describe what exists.

(5) Sources of the resistance to substituting reality principles for myth.

e. Elementary education is a major current contributor to innovative practices that end to accord a high level of self-determination to consumers.

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9. Professional authority and consumer participation.

a. Two major concepts introduced early in the course are recapitulated at this point and the dissonance between them explicated:

(1) The traditional authority of the professions in their dealings with consumers.

(2) The watchword of the War on Poverty of the 1960's.

b. The War on Poverty had the effect of slightly de-emphasizing role distance and stratification between some consumers and professionals. Whether the effect was only superficial remains to be seen.

c. The introduction of a new order of human service worker, however—"the new nonprofessional" who is or has himself been a consumer—is likely to have a lasting effect since he often works with the same clients that the professional does.

d. What is for many a new dynamic has been introduced: the attitudes of consumers, especially the poor, toward professionals.

e. Limitations of the new arrangement are considered, including, for example, these:

(1) The particularism of the poor and the trained incapacity of many professionals.

(2) The divisiveness, "wheel-spinning," and conservatism of many poor persons, especially whites.

(3) The danger of "throwing out the baby with the bath water;" even if one wishes to discount a profession's authority, it is folly to discount its demonstrated expertise.

(4) The dilemma that this new social reform movement has produced little reform.

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10. The professional culture, "self-evaluation," and accountability: the issue of contract.

a. According to tradition, professionals are accountable to their peers through the means of the professional association.

b. The professional association (or culture) transcends the workplace, whether entrepeneurial or bureaucratic in structure.

c. This accountability to a cosmopolitan reference group has often proved dysfunctional not only to consumers, but to bureaucratic employers outside the given profession (see 11 below).

d. The accountability to the professional association tends to be less than effective for these reasons:

  (1) In a complex society the association has limited access to information on members' performance (hospital review committees represent a countertendency).
  (2) The culture and privileged position they share together makes professionals reluctant to record judgments about each other.
  (3) Even if a negative judgment is rendered, the association has limited mechanisms for declaring and enforcing sanctions.

e. Bureaucratized services tend to be more functional for practitioners than consumers.

f. In contrast to the value attached to "free enterprise" in the larger culture, its counterpart within the human service culture, "duplication of service," is a denigrating concept.

g. To the extent that the human service "territory" tends to be divided up into previously agreed-upon domains (with little competition for patronage of the human service "market"), the services resemble monopolies, and monopolies are notorious for having little, if any, accountability.

h. Seldom is there (between the human services and their consumers) a previously agreed-upon contract consisting of the following dimensions (Traunstein):

  (1) Voluntary mutual assent.
  (2) A common goal or compatible goals.
  (3) Specification of performance standards: what each party can expect of the other.
  (4) Mechanisms for suspending or terminating the contract upon evidence of bad faith on the part of either party.

i. Whereas an undelivered service may result in withdrawal by the consumer (i.e., school dropouts, failed intakes), the withdrawing behavior is likely to be labeled as deviant.

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11. Professionalism, industrialization, and bureaucracy: articulation and tension.

a. The emerging industrialist of the nineteenth century promoted with zeal the efficiency and standardization made possible by bureaucracy; under their leadership and influence this form was rapidly exported beyond the immediate domain of business (i.e., the Charity Organization Movement).

b. The values of industrialism were also exported, and thus the social values of a society became embedded in its economic values instead of the converse, which had always prevailed previously (Polanyi).

c. The human services and the newer professions themselves rapidly became bureaucratized; furthermore, in our time industry has become a prime employer of professionals.

d. In opposing viewpoints Drucker and Vollmer and Mills and Parsons, Goss, and Blau and Scott argue respectively that there is considerable tension and a high degree of articulation between professional and bureaucratic orientations.

e. The process whereby the human services put the needs of the organization ahead of the consumers' needs is considerably advanced, despite the prevailing values that would regard this order of priorities as legitimate for business but not for service organizations (Gouldner, Blau and Scott).

f. A number of business aspire to professional status in their quest for greater autonomy, prestige, public trust, and the like.

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12. Socioeconomic class and the nature of professional service: "silk stocking" and "blue-collar" professionals.

a. The several professions may be arranged on a scale ranging from higher to lower social status and prestige, whether in the eyes of the community or of fellow professionals (see I c 3 above).

b. Even within each of several, if not all, professions the specializations may be perceived in a hierarchy from most to least prestigious, resulting in differential recruitment and access to these specialties.

c. There is a reasonably high correlation between a future professional's social class, sex, race, academic performance, and the social status of the specific profession aspired to (anticipatory socialization): For example:

(1) Nursing tends strongly to attract girls from modest or lower socioeconomic backgrounds.

(2) Social work tends to attract women from back-

grounds in which philanthropy is an established social value.

(3) Social work tends strongly to attract men from blue-collar backgrounds who have not had distinguished academic performance.

d. The professions therefore tend frequently to be exploited as channels for upward mobility (except in instances when a woman primarily derives her social position from that of her family or her husband rather than from her own occupation).

e. Some latent functions may be associated with services to the poor by persons from a blue-collar or poverty background. Their upward mobility may be expressed, for example, either as

(1) An "escape" from identity with the "lower classes," or

(2) A wish to make it possible for other lower-class young people to identify with them and follow in their footsteps.

f. The differential between motivations such as those just illustrated will have important consequences for the way in which services are delivered to low-income or lower middle-class clients along such dimensions as definition of the presenting problem, relationship formation, and proposed solutions. For example, it is possible to hypothesize that a significant proportion of the good people's "dirty workers" (see Hughes, interpreted by Rainwater) are derived from among the former poor now serving as inner-city social workers, teachers, policemen, and so on.

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13. Transforming some of the assumptions and attitudes of the middle class as one means of diminishing structure inequality in society.

a. In the United States almost the only politically acceptable means for reducing structured inequality is to change the attributes of the poor: their income, education, employability, and so on.

b. Still another route is open to policymakers but almost never exploited: changing the conditions of middle- and upper-class life. This route is neglected because there is strong evidence on the basis of which to conclude that it is politically unfeasible.

c. Yet because of the profound interrelatedness of all parts of a dynamic social system, it is argued that no part can be fundamentally changed unless all parts vary together.

d. One or two extremely modest efforts to exercise this second option are considered.

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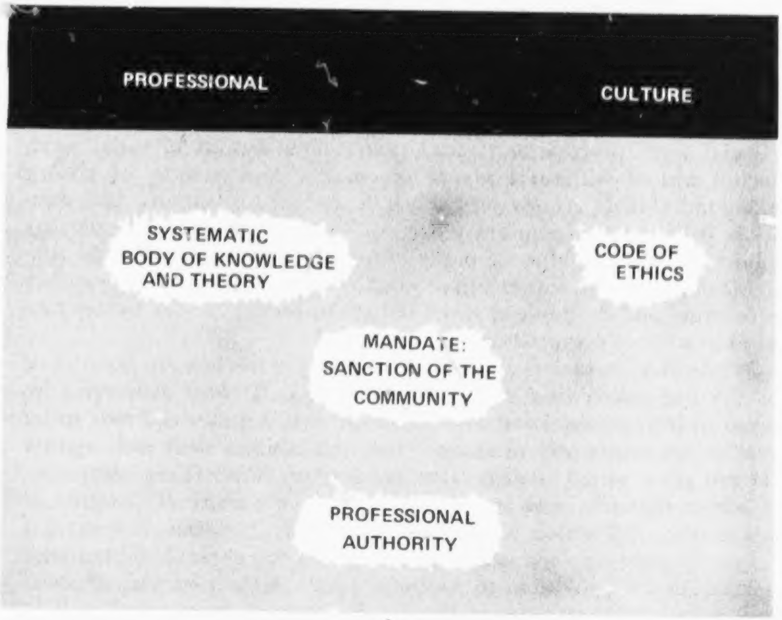
PROFESSIONAL
CULTURE
SYSTEMATIC BODY OF KNOWLEDGE AND THEORY
CODE OF ETHICS
MANDATE: SANCTION OF THE COMMUNITY
PROFESSIONAL AUTHORITY

Figure 1. Ernest K. Greenwood's "Attributes of a Profession," rendered by Richard Steinman

APPENDIX E

CONCEPTS OF CONFLICT: USE IN SOCIAL WORK CURRICULUM

Simon Slavin

The current social turbulence in the nation, affecting as it does some of its most central institutions—and not least of all the universities—underscores the significance of processes of conflict for the development of social work practice and social policy. Few aspects of social work practice unfold without evidence of conflict, competition, or rivalry among individuals, groups, organizations, and/or institutions. Such conflict is pervasive in community life. Its very universality suggests that conflict is a property of social organization.[1] A careful student of the subject, Quincy Wright, suggests that "conflict in some form . . . is probably an essential and desirable element of human society. . . . A society cannot exist without competition and conflict."[2]

While little empirical evidence on the subject has been recorded, one has the impression that social workers frequently find themselves involved in interpersonal and intraorganizational disputes and that social agencies are frequently in competition and conflict with one another and are often pitted against other community institutions, competing for scarce resources and attempting through a variety of patterns of organization and action to effect changes in their modes of operation and service delivery. One might have expected this general circumstance to have led the profession to a careful study of the processes of social conflict and, consequently, to the development of insight and skill in dealing with them. In fact, little has been done in this field.

This paper is a modest contribution to filling this lacuna. It will suggest a number of concepts central to an understanding of social conflict and to its management and will review briefly a suggested typology of conflict strategy. The underlying assumption is that some range of concepts of conflict is essential for a well-designed social work curriculum, and while most of these ideas seem especially relevant for community organization work, its very pervasiveness in organizations suggests similar relevance for all aspects of social work practice.

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[1] Raymond W. Mack, "The Components of Social Conflict," *Social Problems,* Vol. 12, No. 4 (Spring 1965). "Wherever human beings are found (1) social organization exists, (2) social conflict ensues, and (3) social conflict is, at least to some extent, deprecated." P. 388. *See also* Ralph Dahrendorf, *Class and Class Conflict in Industrial Society* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1959), P. 208; and E. E. Schattschneider, *The Semi-Sovereign People* (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1960), p. 71: "All politics, all leadership and all organization involves the management of conflict.

[2] Quincy Wright, "The Nature of Conflict," *Western Political Quarterly,* Vol. 4, No. 2 (June 1951), p. 197–198, 200.

The current study of conflict is advanced by the realization that "all conflicts have common elements and general patterns." [3] Recently considerable effort has gone into conflict analysis as a consequence of the imperative need to deal with problems growing out of the international threat of nuclear war. The conjunction in time of the civil rights revolution and the weaponry revolution has raised interest in conflict and conflict control or management to a new high. With the appearance of Coser's restatement and updating of Simmel's work on conflict and the publication of Coleman's significant tract on community conflict, interest on the part of sociologists and of some community organization practitioners similarly began to mount.[4]

SOCIAL CHANGE AND CONFLICT

Perhaps no relationship is more central to conflict than that of change. According to LaPiere, "any change always involves considerable stress both individual and collective . . . in the process of being accomplished, the change produces its own stress and strains—discontents, frustrations, discussions and disappointments." [5] The extent to which change touches deeply felt values or interests is the extent to which it is likely to lead to overt conflict.

The rate of change also has its consequences for conflict. The more rapid the rate of change, the more likely it is to upset existing social relationships and the more likely it is that conflict will result. We live in a period when change is omnipresent and when its rate tends to increase with time. In part this is a consequence of the growth of an urban industrial society developing ever new instruments and technologies of production. The more these change, the greater the innovations and inventions, the greater the need to deal with the human consequences of technological development.

Social change implies a movement away from the status quo, a shift in the norms and relationships that comprise the social equilibrium at any specific point in time. Such an equilibrium in a social system satisfies certain interest groups and conversely has a negative impact on other groups and individuals. Those who benefit from the existing arrangements resent change and tend to resist its manifestations. Thus change tends to breed conflict between interest groups because it challenges the conventional basis of reward distribution. Those most disadvantaged by existing allocations of resources, wealth, prestige, power, or position are potential claimants for these values. Under certain conditions these strivings lead to organized conflict. The greater the disparity, the greater the likelihood that the individual dissatisfaction and perception of inequality will assume collective forms.

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[3] Kenneth E. Boulding, *Conflict and Defense* (New York: Harper & Row, 1962), p. 189.

[4] Lewis A. Coser, *The Functions of Social Conflict* (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1956); James S. Coleman, *Community Conflict* (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1957).

[5] Richard T. Lapière, Social Change (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965), p. 478.

Conflict and change have a reciprocal relationship; each is both source and product of the other. Change leads to conflict and conflict to change. These are natural processes that are characteristic of social systems.[6] Within certain limits some aspects of these processes can be molded and directed through deliberate social action.

The central purpose of focusing on conflict is to develop diagnostic insight into conflictual elements and processes and to provide principles that can serve as a guide to change agent activities. These should make it possible to plan ways of maximizing the creative and productive function of conflict.

THE NATURE OF CONFLICT

Kurt Singer has defined conflict as "a critical state of tension occasioned by the presence of mutually incompatible tendencies within an organismic whole, the functional continuity or structural integrity of which is thereby threatened." [7] In a similar vein, Boulding suggests that "conflict may be defined as a situation of competition in which parties are aware of the incompatibility of the potential future positions and in which each party wishes to occupy a position that is incompatible with the wishes of the other." [8] It is the perception of the existence of the incompatible preferences, the mutual desire to achieve these preferences, and the behavior expended in the direction of gaining such positions that essentially characterize a state of conflict. The sheer existence of contradictory positions and preferences may constitute competition, rivalry, or hostility, but not necessarily conflict. Competition is a striving for scarce objects sought by social entities concurrently, while conflict implies antagonistic struggle. The chief objective in competition is the scarce object. In conflict it is injury, destruction, or defeat of an opponent.[9]

POSITIVE FUNCTIONS OF CONFLICT

That conflict can be destructive is part of conventional wisdom and common sense. It is increasingly recognized, however, that conflict can also be functional for individual, group, and societal welfare. A fairly substantial literature has not appeared that points to ways in which conflict has integrative and beneficient consequences for group and community life.[10]

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[6] See Alvin L. Bertrand, "The Stress Strain Element of Social Systems: A Micro Theory of Conflict and Change," Social Forces, Vol. 42, No. 11, (October 1963), pp. 1–9.

[7] Kurt Singer, "The Resolution of Conflict," *Social Research*, Vol. 16 (1949), p. 230.

[8] Boulding, op. cit., p. 5.

[9] *See* Raymond W. Mack and Richard C. Snyder, "The Analysis of Social Conflict —Toward an Overview and Synthesis," *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, Vol. 1 No. 2 (June 1957), p. 218.

Perhaps the most thoroughgoing significance of conflict grows out of the ways in which it places issues and problems on the community's agenda, calling attention in dramatic and often irresistible ways to social circumstances that require change action. When the normal procedures of community decisionmaking are nonresponsive to imperative social need, conflict forces a facing of social issues, and in so doing makes possible their attempted resolution. The absence of conflict under conditions of social disadvantage often expresses inertia, complacency, or deliberate inaction that permit the continuation of exploitative social relations in the community. Even the threat of conflict often results in responsive action.

Once the conflict has broken out, the very process whereby parties contend with one another has the effects of sharpening interest and compelling thought about the issues at stake, advancing and defending alternatives, distinguishing divergent points of view, and deepening analysis.[11] Mutual challenge requires probing into the implications of opposing viewpoints. What appears simple and uncomplicated may in fact assume multiple and complex dimensions calling for further examination and clarification. Implicit in social conflict behavior is a form of reality-testing, not unlike that which takes place in therapy groups where, according to Frank, "the occasion of conflict is seen as a means of evoking and clarifying the distortions and neurotic attitudes which are highlighted by the struggle, whether it is resolved or not." [12]

Conflict is essentially an expression of a relationship between social entities that often mirrors unequal access to scarce objects that are socially valued. Such relationships often represent differential status positions. Conflict can have the effect of restructuring such relations between groups;[13] without conflict, group accommodation can result in subordination.[14] Intergroup struggle compels recognition of group interest and group integrity, if pursued with strength and persistence of group demands. Minorities find a place in the arena of competing interest and decisionmaking when they assert their collective will in opposition to those they perceive as responsible for maintaining the status quo. In this process the locus of power is laid bare, making possible a real confrontation between true contenders. Much community power is latent and camouflaged and operates through intermediary agents, formal and informal. When conflict is sufficiently intense, the real wielders of power are likely to be revealed. Negotiation can then take place with people in a position to make real commitments.

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[10] *See,* for example, George Simmel, *Conflict and the Web of Group-Affiliations* (New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1955) ; Coser, op. cit.; Robert C. North, Howard E. Koch, Jr., and Dina A. Zinnes, "The Integrative Functions of Conflict," *Journal of Conflict Resolution,* Vol. 4, No. 3 (September 1960) ; H. L. Nieburg, "The Uses of Violence," *Journal of Conflict Resolution,* Vol. 7, No. 1 (March 1963) ; Joseph S. Himes, "The Functions of Racial Conflict," *Social Forces,* Vol. 45, No. 1 (September 1966) .

[11] *See* Gary W. King, Walter E. Freeman, and Christopher Sower, *Conflict over Schools* (East Lansing, Mich.: Institute for Community Development, Michigan State University, 1963) , p. 35; Lyle E. Schaller, *Community Organization: Conflict and Reconciliation* (New York: Abingdon Press, 1966) , p. 77.

[12] Jerome D. Frank, "Training and Therapy," in Leland P. Bradford, J. R. Gibb, and Kenneth D. Benne, eds., *T-Group Theory and Laboratory Method: Innovation in Re-Education* (New York: Thomas Wiley & Sons, 1964) , p. 450.

[13] Dan W. Doson, "The Creative Role of Conflict in Intergroup Relations," p. 4. Unpublished, undated paper. (Mimeographed.)

[14] Robert C. Sorensen, "The Concept of Conflict in Industrial Sociology," *Social Forces,* Vol. 29, No. 3 (March 1951) , p. 266.

There is perhaps no more effective way to overcome disinterest and apathy in organizations and in community life than through the realistic cultivation of meaningful conflict. Neighborhood residents perceived as alienated and apathetic move into action whenever they are threatened with displacement as a result of urban renewal, highway construction, slum clearance, and the like. Their engagement in conflict to keep their homes mobilizes energies and creates group identity and collective awareness that effectively dispel isolation and anomie. Negroes, both northern and southern, involved in the civil rights movement and in struggles for local control give evidence of community participation and involvement that defy stereotypes of apathy and detachment.

The role of conflict in moving organizations to creative effort has frequently been noted. Thus Katz suggests:

> Organizations without internal conflict are on their way to dissolution. A system with differentiated sub-structures has conflict built into it by virtue of its differentiated subsystems. If it moves toward complete harmony, it moves toward homogeneity and random distribution of all its elements. Entropy takes over.[15]

Conflict, on the other hand, both "within and between bureaucratic structures provides mean for avoiding the ossification and ritualism which threaten their form of organization." [16] Challenge engenders response and stimulates the search for new and better ways of doing things. Its absence tends to lead to complacency and acceptance of inbred habits of thought and action.

Finally, there is some recognition that conflict which leads to violence may also be functional for society. While violence, with its destructive potential is generally considered to be antithetical to democratic processes, under certain conditions it serve to mobilize indifferent or callous authority in the direction of positive social change that modifies oppressive or exploitative social practices. Thus prison riots often lead to institutional reforms; violent racial conflicts to legislative reform and social policy development. There is, of course, always the possibility that violence may bring more repressive counterviolence. The content and environment of violence, the nature of predisposing issues and events, the strength, political and otherwise, of the parties involved, the degree, nature, and intensity of the violent behavior, all define whether one or another consequence is likely to be forthcoming. A clue to the diagnostic value of violence is suggested by Nieburg: "Demonstrations of domestic violence serve to establish the intensity of commitment of members of the political system."[17] Low commitments—either in scope of intensity—have less meaning for challenge to the status quo. High commitments may be ultimately irrepressible. Violence tends to point to weaknesses in a social or organizational system and hence suggests modifications that may help establish new equilibriums. "The risk of violence," Nieburg states, is necessary and useful in preserving natural societies."[18]

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[15] Daniel Katz, "Approaches to Managing Conflict," in Robert L. Kahn and Elise Boulding, eds., *Power and Conflict in Organizations* (New York: Basic Books, 1964), p. 114.

[16] Lewis A. Coser, "Social Conflict and the Theory of Social Change," British Journal of Sociology, Vol. 8 (September 1957), p. 200.

KEY CONCEPTS

A number of elements tend to inhere in any conflict situation that provide a conceptual basis for conflict analysis. These include parties, issues, power, goals, boundaries, alliances, equity, and strategies of conflict management. Each will be reviewed briefly.

PARTIES

Conflict, which depends on incompatible preferences, implies at least two polar aggregates, each seeking to achieve its preferences in the face of a challenge by the other. Parties to a conflict can be individuals, groups, and/or organizations, suggesting theoretically nine possible types of conflict. At one end are conflicts between individuals; at the other, between organizations.

Conflicts between individuals may have their sources in incompatible personality needs, in differing reference group identity, or in contrasting ideological beliefs and sentiments. Planned actions to deal with individual conflict will inevitably be influenced by the diagnostic judgments thus made. Individual conflict is often expressive of group or organizational conflict and may become an important source of collective conflict as others rally to an individual's cause in controversy and as exciting organizations recognize their inherent interest in the fate of individuals mobilized by such interest.

Conflicts that grow out of group differences characterized by ethnic minorities, labor, religious adherents, and the like tend to heighten group consciousness and to assume organizational forms.[19] As noted by Boulding, "There is some tendency for conflicts involving groups to pass over into conflicts involving organizations as one of the impacts of conflict on an unorganized group is to push it toward organization."[20]

Perhaps the most significant conflicts in community life are those in which the parties involved are organizations. Such conflicts take place both within and between organizations. The larger an organization, the greater the likelihood of differing sentiments and values among its members. Lines of communication and control tend to be more tenuous as distance increases between rank-and-file participants and successive levels of authority, making organizational compliance more difficult. Subgroups, cliques, and friendship clusters tend to form and become potential sources of organizational deviance. When subgroup sentiments are perceived to be violated by the organization's policies and practices, intraorganizational conflict tends to break out.

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[17] Nieburg, op. cit., p. 54.

[18] Ibid., p. 43.

[19] Dahrendorf, op. cit., distinguishes between quasi-groups, which are "aggregates of incumbents of positions with identical role interests," and *interest groups*, which have "common modes of behavior" (p. 180). Thus quasi-groups are the recruiting ground for interest groups. Industrial workers constitute a quasi-group; trade unions, an interest group.

[20] Boulding, op. cit., p. 45.

Another source of internal conflict grows out of the organizational structure that differentiates member roles. Such differentiation tends to establish conflicting interests on the part of members who occupy diverse organizational roles. Higher participants who constitute the organization's leadership do not necessarily have the same structural interests as lower participants, even if they share the same ideals, goals, sentiments, and values. For example, rank-and-file trade union members are chiefly concerned with the benefits to be derived from union membership, such as improved wages, shorter hours, fringe benefits, and the like. Union leaders may be more interested in considerations of union security and stability, as well as benefits that take the form of salaries, prerequisites, and power. Higher salaries for union executives may require higher dues payment from members. One might note in this connection that unions frequently discourage—and even actively oppose—unionizing efforts among their own employees.

The more successful an organization becomes, the more it tends to establish a system of organizational vested interests among its higher participants. Organizations tend to be preoccupied with their own maintenance needs as they deal with the problem of organizational survival and growth. For members of an organization's secretariat, such maintenance concerns tend to have a direct personal reference. For them organization may mean employment, status, and power in addition to ideology or sentiment. The possibility that organization may become an end in itself for such role incumbents potentially places them in opposition to other role participants. Thus organizations frequently are the arena for disaffection and revolt of members against leaders, stockholders against corporation executives, young Turks against entrenched bureaucrats.

Different segments within an organization also compete for organizational attention. The impact of role demands on role incumbents tends to be more marked than the reverse. Role incumbents tend to identify with the requirements of their positions in an organization. Local units of national organizations tend to demand a greater share of the organization's resources for decentralized operations. National staff members tend to maintain the organizational integrity of centralized functions.

Conflict between intraorganizational structures is always latent. It tends to become manifest under conditions of organizational stress, especially when resources decline and choices have to be made with respect to reduced allocations.

Conflicts between organizations grow out of competition for the same or scarce resources, which may be finances, leadership, friends, adherents, public attention, or the like. Such conflicts are greatest when resources are relatively fixed, so that competing moves take on the character of a zero-sum game—what one organization gets diminishes the "take" of the other. Thus welfare organizations frequently tend to appeal to the same set of voluntary foundations for funds, to the same pool of community leaders for their attachments, and to the same central source of distribution of centrally gathered funds.

Interorganizational conflicts often take on intraorganizational forms simultaneously, a consequence of either different values or divergent interests between higher and lower participants. The goals promulgated by constituent parts of an organization may not only differ, but may also find points of linkage with similar segments of competing organizations. Thus the common structural characteristics of the leadership core of two organizations in conflict may lead to common aims that override their differences.

Thus collective bargaining negotiations frequently lead to implicit understandings between the union officials and the employer's representatives that take precedence over the common strivings of union members and their official representatives. This can be shown graphically in Figure 1.

A and *B* are the two parties in conflict, each trying to occupy a position where there is room for only one. At a certain point, especially when stalemate appears, the interests of the higher participants (H_1) of Party *A* in achieving a settlement frequently are more congruent with the interests of their counterparts (H_2) of Party *B* than with those of the lower participants (L_1) of Party *A*. Situations such as these lead to charges by lower participants of "selling out" to the enemy or of "betraying the members." They tend characteristically to lead to secret negotiations at the same time that official talks are being held.

Such secret dealings frequently involve third or fourth parties who are free to reformulate positions taken by the competing organizations or to develop entirely new lines of inquiry. Secret dealings tend also to lead to the use of "spies" to ferret out secret moves, to the public issuance of rumors concerning parallel moves made by the parties, or reports that secret deals have been made.

Issues

Parties are generally joined in conflict with respect to some substantive matter that has significance and meaning to the contestants. The degree to which there is a potential investment of feeling or an attachment of significance to these issues has an important bearing on the intensity of a given conflict and effective ways of handling it. The conflict issues involve events that have divergent consequences for people affected by them and that lead to the perception of an incompatibility of preferences. These frequently arise out of divergent interests among social units located in a competitive or conflictive field. Interests are goals and objects that have salience to individuals, groups, or organi-

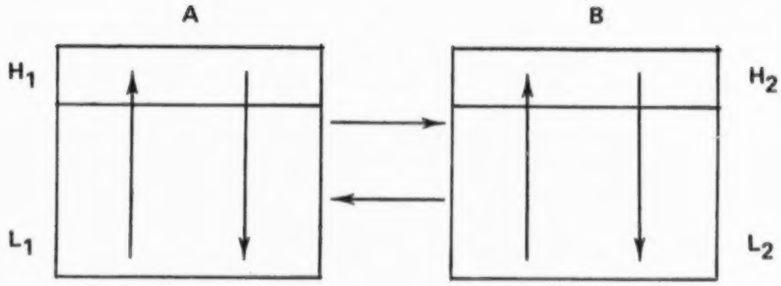
A
B
H_1
H_2
L_1
L_2

Figure 1. Interorganization Conflict with Intraorganizational Forms

zations, and when perceived and understood tend to provide direction to their actions. Such interests may be material (have economic or political value), psychological (confer status or grant control and power), or structure (grow out of different locations in social structures or organizations.) Assessing the interest that motivates members of opposing parties can be a difficult task, since actions that promote interests are not always overt expressions of those interests. Much of the rhetoric of conflict is carefully designed to hide the underlying motivations and to demonstrate ways in which stated positions accord with conventional and idealistic sentiments. The task of the practitioner is often to help reveal the latent content of observed behavior of opponents and at the same time make manifest the actual if unperceived interest of members of his own action system.

Among the most difficult and intractable conflicts are those that grow out of differing and conflicting values and beliefs. Groups with strong ideological roots tend to develop intense attachments in their adherents. They also tend to be uncompromising as a way of ensuring their purity, continuity, or growth. Maintenance of rigid group boundaries and the administration of more or less rigid criteria of belief commitments tend to characterize such groups. Most, if not all, social conflict contains an element of value incompatibility. The extent to which such differences lie at the base of a specific conflict depends in part on value ordering. Strong value orderings inhere in organizations whose goals are defined by strong ideological or religious commitments. Political organizations that are ideologically rooted similarly have strong value ordering and tend to be involved in sharp conflicts with opposing groups professing contradictory or competing values.

Whether an organization with strong value orderings will tend to be more or less uncompromising in a conflict situation will depend on (1) its degree of internal cohesion, (2) the degree of centralization of internal organizational control, and (3) the degree and exclusiveness of commitments to group or organizational values.[21] When these elements are positive and extensive, organizations will be ready for conflict that is intense and of substantial duration. They will respond to challenge quickly and will tend to initiate conflict when they perceive the possibility of invasion of their rights or preserve.

The social work practitioner works in a complex value field in which his own values and those of his profession, his employing agency, his client system, and the community at large frequently diverge even if they are not in outright conflict. In his contacts with other professionals and other agencies he frequently comes up against the same value barriers.

It is highly probable that some aspect of value or interest divergence can be identified in all conflict situations.[22] The more conflicts have strong value elements, the greater the difficulty one can expect in dealing with them. Similarly, the greater the vested interests at stake, the more tenacious and uncompromising parties tend to be.

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[21] Mack and Snyder, op. cit., p. 234.

[22] Wilhelm Aubert, "Competition and Dissensus: Two Types of Conflict and Conflict Resolution," *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, Vol. 7, No. 1 (March 1963), p. 29.

Power Relations

There is general consensus in the literature that power and its distribution is a concept central to an understanding of conflict. To some it is *the* core concept that helps explain both the genesis and the course of conflict and plays a crucial role in defining strategies to be used in its management. Thus North et al. state:

> It is evident . . . that a conflict is always concerned with a distribution of power. Indeed, an exertion of power is prerequisite to the retention of a share in the determination of future relations—as well as for the acquiring or retaining of other benefits perceived as the "reasons" for conflict.[23]

According to Mack:

> All conflict is rooted in competition for power and for the fruits of power . . . Men in groups are ever deciding whether to keep what they have, concede a portion of it in order to avoid difficulty, or risk some difficulty in an attempt to get more. The nature of the structure and the distribuion of power engenders social conflict.[24]

In what is perhaps the most ambitious attempt to develop a theory of social conflict, Dahrendorf places central emphasis on the relationship of dominance and subordination that characterizes the structure of authority in associations such as the state, industry, and the church. Authority is defined as legitimate power. For Dahrendorf the distribution of authority in associations is the ultimate "cause" of the formation of conflict groups.[25]

The power dimension is a variable quantity in conflict relationships. The more fundamental the issue at stake, the more significant power becomes and the higher one reaches into the power hierarchy in the course of struggle.

The relative distribution of power not only has an impact on the course of conflict but itself becomes a value and an interest. In this sense it is both an instrument and a cause of conflict. The exclusion of some segments of the population from the power structure creates conditions for collective redress. Their bid to play a part in the processes of community decisionmaking that affect their life circumstances serves as a rallying point in the attempt to effect a redistribution of power. The values they assert are democratic insofar as a broader sharing of power advances democratic goals. A restructuring of power is also an interest in the sense that enhanced power on the part of those who have little leads to a greater capacity to achieve both latent and manifest interests.

Assessment of the amount of power possessed by opponents becomes an important aspect of strategy development. Such assessment, however, is difficult to make. While power is a quantitative property in the sense that some individuals, organizations, and institutions have more than others, the units of measurement are elusive. Power frequently works through subterranean passages and, like an iceberg, lies more below than above the surface. In assessing power attention needs to be directed to its sources.

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[23] North, op. cit., p. 370.

[24] Mack, op. cit., pp. 393, 388.

[25] Ralf Dahrendorf, "Toward a Theory of Social Conflict," *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, Vol. 2, No. 2 (June 1958), pp. 177–178.

The use of power in the course of conflict is largely determined by the extent to which contending parties have access to power resources. While power is a property of social systems, it is manifested through persons located in certain segments of the social structure. When access is open to such persons and—through them—to organizations in which they wield influence, conflict strategy is based on reaching them and attempting to attach them to the cause at hand. Differentiation within any power stratum frequently leads to competitive bidding for such support by the parties in conflict. When, however, access is closed or limited, conflicting parties tend to build their own power bases. They do this through the recruitment of large numbers to the cause and the imaginative use of tactics that mobilize support and release social energy.

Goals

Parties are drawn into conflict with one another because they compete for a limited supply of goods, objects, values, or positions. It is the scarcity of these resources that creates conditions of conflict. When the supply of certain resources is plentiful, or when seemingly opposed positions can coexist, differences between parties may lead to competitive striving, but not necessarily to conflict. The latter in some way implies the intent to harm an opposing party or to achieve some gain at the expense of the other.

In each conflict there is a potential payoff to both parties. These constitute the conflictual goals that bring the parties into contact with one another. It is the very commonality of interest that defines the nature of the conflict. The resolution of conflict, deals with "who gets what." It is important to identify with care and specificity what the conflictual goals are and how realistic and salient they are to the involved party. Planned conflict is goal directed. The goals have an important bearing on the significance of the conflict and the ways in which it is conducted.

There is a significant relationship between intensity and scope on the one hand and the expected payoff in planned conflict on the other. Practitioners and participants need to judge whether there is enough to be gained to warrant the amount of social energy expended in any given campaign. Small efforts for major gains may be totally unrealistic and result in wasted collective energy. Major expenditure of efforts that yields little in desired directions can similarly have a negative effect on group morale. In general the more substantial the goals and the greater the stakes, the more intensive must be the planning for developing a conflictual effort.

Boundaries

Conflict takes place within a given field when moves can be made by one party that result in its aggrandizement while diminishing another party. There is thus an "area" occupied by conflict that has a quasi-spacial dimension. The parameters of this space can be determined by the specific resources whose possession is at issue, the physical area occupied by the parties, the extent of organizational membership, claimed jurisdiction, or the kinds and numbers of issues that engage the contending parties. When the boundaries defining the claims, interests, or values of different parties are in dispute, conflict may result. Those who claim rights and responsibilities within their perceived boundaries tend to resist invasion.

The boundary concept is important to the practitioner in mating organizational resources to organizational goals in planned conflict. Conflict can become dysfunctional when too much "ground" is covered or when the organizational effort attempts to accomplish too much. To a considerable extent the intensity of conflict may determine its utility. The absence of or too little conflict may be indicative of the strength of the mechanisms that maintain the status quo. On the other hand, a conflict can go beyond the boundaries of maximum intensity to the disadvantage of the concerned party. This is as true of intraorganizational conflict as it is of interorganizational or community conflict. While conflict within an organization helps maintain its viability and creativity, too much internal conflict can lead to its dismemberment. The stronger an organization is and the greater the attachments of its members, the more conflict it can tolerate. There are, however, limits beyond which no organization can contain conflicting elements and survive.

Much the same is true of conflict in the community. Conflict tends to create a reactive response. The extent of the response is determined by the nature of the challenge and by the strength and will of opposing parties. Too much planned conflict can stimulate overwhelming counterreaction and result in negative rather than positive consequences. One of the persistent problems in planned conflict grows out of the unplanned and often undisciplined attachment of segments of the community that can result in unanticipated mass behavior.[26]

Alliances

Social conflicts frequently involve more than two primary parties. Other individuals, groups, or organizations may feel a stake in the issues under contention. There is a tendency for multiple-party conflicts to polarize around one or the other of the major contenders. This is clearly seen in politics and in wars. Political alliances and coalitions are traditionally a part of the political process. This is true in the two-party system as well as in those countries where a multiplicity of parties exist. The latter tend to join together several political organizations that are more or less stable but shift with circumstances. In the former, single parties are composed of coalitions of formal or informal interest groups.

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[26] For a somewhat similar general classification, *see* Herbert A. Shepard, "Responses to Situations of Competition and Conflict," in Kahn and Boulding, eds., op. cit., p. 33. *See also* North, Koch, and Zinnes, op. cit., p. 368; and J. David Singer, "The Political Science of Human Conflict," in Elton B. McNeil, ed., *The Nature of Human Conflict* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965), p. 141.

There may in actuality be a wider range of interests and beliefs *within* each of the two opposing parties than between them. Wars separate into two opposing camps different national states that share some common interests or values. Effective conflict in both war and politics often depends on the nature and strength of the alliances formed.

Conflict groups in the community have a similar interest in knowing and cultivating potential allies and friends. In some instances they strive to establish formal coalitions. Informal alliances without organizational ties play perhaps an even more important role. The ability to sustain a conflict position and to resist attack frequently depends on the extent to which allies are recruited and their support maintained. However, the greater the reliance on coalition members, the more the pressure develops to release part of the objectives of the conflict.

Coalitions and alliances are in the long run frequently unstable. Their capacity to sustain cooperative effort depends largely on the degree of perceived congruence of goals. When goal linkage has short-run dimensions, alliances fall apart when the proximate goals are achieved or when defeat is apparent. Victory brings into focus the long-range intragroup differences and sets a new stage for conflict in which new and divisive interests or values appear. Thus the united effort in World War II produced an effective coalition until the point of surrender. Once the immediate common goal—defeat of the Axis powers—was achieved, the differences in national aims, interests, and philosophies reasserted themselves in new national policies that pitted former allies against each other and made new allies out of former enemies. Victory seems to sow the seeds of its own destruction. After defeat coalitions also tend to splinter, each group blaming the other, while frustration and disillusionment tend to reduce group cohesion and the attachments of members.

Equity

Social conflicts have their own dynamics, form, and structure irrespective of the nature of the issues that brought them about. They do, however, also deal with substantive matters that have greater or lesser significance for people they involve or affect. Except for unrealistic conflicts that deal with sheer ventilation, there is an underlying ethical and humanistic base that motivates the constituents of the parties opposing one another. One of the elements of power is precisely the moral fervor that serves to propel movement and sustain effort even in the face of danger or discouragement. In wars as in social life, a small determined nucleus of persons with high morale and dedication often opposes seemingly overwhelming forces with considerable effectiveness.

Part of the task of the practitioner is his assessment of where equity lies in the conflict between parties. Most indigenous social movements engage in conflict with forces of superior power and resources. The collective action directed toward constructive social change in the community often takes the form of conflict between power and equity.

Strategies of Conflict Managementt

Once conflicts have gotten under way they have their own life cycle.

Even the most acrimonious and heated conflict comes to an end with some new circumstance and relationship between the parties. Wars end in treaties, strikes in settlements, unhappy marriages in separation or divorce. The task of the social practitioner, union organizer, civil rights leader, or community organizer, is to help conduct the battle in such a way that positive consequences are maximized and costs minimized.

There are many ways in which conflicts are conducted and brought to some more or less stabilized conclusion. Such modes of resolution bear a relationship to the nature, source, type, and intensity of specific conflicts. Some lend themselves to certain approaches that would be totally inappropriate in other situations. The use of an inappropriate strategy may well lead to an intensification of hostility and prolonged conflict or to early defeat of one of the parties. An area of needed research lies in the empirical study of types of conflict and the strategies of conflict management that are useful and productive with each type. Even the best intention and motivation can lead to a sequence of negative and unanticipated events because the wrong strategy was applied or because it was planned poorly.

An example can be drawn from the field of intergroup relations. Social agencies frequently bring ethnic groups together in a program of activities intended to reduce negative stereotypes and intergroup hostility. When this is done through the organization of competitive games, the reverse frequently results. A close and sharply fought basketball game between, say, Negro and white participants can end in a riot, should the referee make a decision toward the end of the game that is perceived by one side to be in error. Latent discriminatory feelings can easily erupt and overcome the benign influences of a desired and pleasurable intergroup environment. It is strategically wiser to pit two teams against one another only when both are mixed ethnically and when untoward decisions in a game cannot be attributed to the ethnic distribution of the competitors.

When the dominant element in conflict concerns the struggle for power and control, the use of persuasion and dissemination of information in the hope of developing better human relations can hardly be expected to lead to effective settlement. On the other hand, when the differences between parties are narrow and the common interest readily perceived, severe forms of action such as attempted suppression of one party by the other may result in exacerbation of the conflict and disruption of settlement rather than in speedy resolution.

A simplified classification of conflict strategies suggests itself. There are at least four major groupings of approaches to conflict management, within each a variety of adaptations. At one extreme are orientations that are intended to prevent the outbreak of overt intergroup hostility or to remove the negative consequences of interparty conflict. They attempt to apply rational methods of a problem-solving character to a situation that might otherwise deteriorate. At the other end of the spectrum lie orientations based on the avowed opposition and hostility of the parties that lead to "declarations of war." Here parties lack a common perception of goals, and at least one of the parties thinks it can compel the other to concede or disappear. The situation is one of win-or-lose confrontation in which one party moves to gain its objectives through diminishing or eliminating the objectives of the other. A middle range of approaches aim at some accommodation or blunting of the demands or positions of both parties. There is no likelihood that the issues can be ignored and no proximate wish to destroy the opposing side. Differences are negotiated and bargaining processes organized, or they are handled in some other way that is intended to remove their impact on the parties. These strategies are based on some minimal degree of common goal perception or community of interests. Here both parties "win" in a sense, in contrast to the circumstance in which one party wins and the other loses. The general strategies and their adaptations are shown in Figure 2.

Integrative	Utilitarian	Negotiative	Coercive
Superordinate Solution	Fait accompli Cooptation Persuasion and dissemination of information Early containment	Direct bargaining Third-party negotiation Conciliation Mediation Arbitration	Suppression Radical protest Nonviolent protest Violent protest

Figure 2. Strategies of Conflict Management

Integrative strategies. The classic demonstration of integrative problem-solving is found in the intergroup experiments of Sherif and his associates. After creating intense hostility between two groups of boys in a camp setting, Sherif set about the task of dispelling the hostility and antagonistic behavior. The key was found in introducing *superordinate goals* into the relationship between the parties, "goals that are compelling for the groups involved, but cannot be achieved by a single group through its own efforts and resources."[27] This strategy is contingent on the possibility of locating potentialities for such goal linkages and of finding creative ways of directing action toward common ends.

Utilitarian strategies. A variety of approaches are included in the strategies labeled utilitarian. The *fait accompli,* as described by Allport, suggests that unpopular or highly controversial changes should be initiated directly, firmly, and without equivocation.

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[27] Muzafer Sherif, *In Common Predicament* (New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966), p. 88. *See also* Muzafer Sheriff, O. J. Harvey, B. Jack White, William R. Hood, and Carolyn W. Sherif, *Intergroup Conflict and Cooperation, The Robbers Cave Experiment* (Norman, Okla.: University of Oklahoma Book Exchange, 1961); Muzafer Sherif, "Superordinate Goals in the Reduction of Intergroup Conflict," *American Journal of Sociology,* Vol. 63 (1958); Muzafer Sherif and Carolyn W. Sherif, *Groups in Harmony and Tension* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1953).

> Official policies once established are hard to revoke. They set models that, once accepted, create habits and conditions favorable to their maintenance. . . . Clear cut administrative decisions that brook no further argument are accepted when such decisions are in keeping with the voice of conscience.[28]

When feelings run deep and issues indicate sharp controversy, the fait accompli attempts to set action in a potential conflict field before opposing forces have time to mobilize their resources and develop momentum for counterattack.

Much has been written about *cooptation* as a mechanism for dealing with external threat and achieving organizational survival. Selznick, who developed the concept out of his analysis of the Tennessee Valley Authority, concluded that the "absorption of nuclei of power into the administrative structure of an organization makes possible the elimination or appeasement of potential sources of opposition." [29] There may, however, be unintended and unanticipated consequences that follow upon the introduction of opposing elements into an organization's decisionmaking structure. Goals may be muted or modified, as in the case of the TVA or, if the opposition is powerful enough, it may lead to organizational takeover, resulting in a form of countercooptation.

The utility of a strategem of *early containment* of conflict grows out of Coleman's study of a wide variety of community conflicts. "Social controversy," he concluded, "sets in motion its own dynamics." [30] Once begun, conflicts become elaborated, moving from specific to general issues, then to new and different issues, and finally from disagreement to antagonism and personal vilification. Dealing with potential differences at relatively early stages can limit hostile escalation.

In the American ethos of consensus, a natural approach to the management of conflict lies in the attempt to deal with differences through *persuasion and dissemination of information.* When differences reflect deep attachments to values or interests, persuasion may, however, have little impact. It works best when the intensity level of conflict is low and when the basis of difference is faulty or blocked communication or misunderstanding. Persuasive and educational devices can correct misperceptions and distoritions, but rarely can they deal effectively with realistic and deeply felt differences.

Negotiative strategies. The strategic approaches to conflict discussed above all involve circumstances in which an overarching common goal and identity of interest can be built into the field of conflict or in which some pattern of action can be organized that has the effect of sidetracking or freezing potentially explosive hostility while maintaining the viability of the system in which divergence appears. Another set of procedures lend themselves to situations when there potentials are absent but when some degree of commonality as well as difference can be brought into the perceptual field of the parties to the conflict.

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[28] Gordon W. Allport, *The Nature of Prejudice* (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., Anchor Books, 1958) , p. 471.

[29] Philip Selznick, *The TVA and the Grass Roots* (New York: Harper & Row, 1966) . Cooptation is defined as "the process of absorbing new elements into the leadership or policy-determining structure of an organization as a means of averting threats to its stability or existence" (p. 13) .

[30] Coleman, op. cit., p. 17.

Situations calling for negotiation through bargaining are characterized by a mixture of conflict and mutual dependence that binds parties to one another, yet compels each to contend for a division of resources in accordance with their differing interests. Most "ultimately involve some range of possible outcomes within which each party would rather make a concession than fail to reach agreement at all."[31] In the bargaining process each party's actions are guided not only by what they think will advance their own position or maximize their payoff, but by what they divine the opposing party's choices and action to be. Party *A*'s behavior depends in substantial part on his expectations of what Party *B* will do if Party *A* moves in Direction *X*. But these are reciprocal expectations, whereby "one must try to guess what the second guesses, the first will guess the second to guess and so on."[32]

Negotiation and bargaining tend to be appropriate stratagems when power relations are relatively equal. In the words of Kirsh: "If collective bargaining is to be a process of private decision-making by the parties, free choice would necessarily presuppose equal power on each side of the bargaining table."[33]

Bargaining works best when it takes place between organized and solidary groups whose leaders reflect the views of their constituents,[34] when a minimum of covert intent can be read into moves made by opposing parties, and when parties perceive the importance of coexistence "and act without threatening the survival of the other."[35] The essential mechanism at work is the perception that continued disagreement, antagonism, and overt conflict are more costly to both parties than an agreement that provides for some gain for each.[36]

Coercive strategies. The final set of strategies in this typology of conflict management deals with situations in which coercion tends to be functionally appropriate. Up to this point conflict patterns have been discussed in which a variety of procedures could be used that rely in some way on shared or mutual goals even in the face of certain divergent or incompatible expectations. When parties lack a degree of common reference and goals are mutually exclusive, the resolution of differences depends on an assertion of force or compulsion to gain ends not otherwise achievable. Coercive strategies come into play when other mechanisms have little hope of achieving change. The greater the disparity between projected group images and aspiration and the prevailing state of affairs, the more probable that force will enter the conflict arena. Coercion challenges the status quo and threatens interests enhanced by the existing social arrangements. It invariably calls forth counteraction and pressure to destroy or modify the effectiveness of protest. Thus coercive approaches are characterized by open confrontation between parties, more or less intense emotional or ideological investment in group goals, strong group identity, and sharp cleavage between organized entities.

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[31] Thomas C. Shelling, *The Strategy of Conflict* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960), p. 70.

[32] Ibid., p. 87.

[33] Benjamin S. Kirsh, *Automation and Collective Bargaining* (New York: Central Book Co., 1964), p. XI.

[34] John A. Fitch, *Social Responsibilities of Organized Labor* (New York: Harper & Row, 1957), p. 40.

[35] Herman Lazarus and Joseph P. Goldberg, *The Role of Collective Bargaining in a Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Institute, 1949), p. 21.

[36] Robert P. Blake, Herbert A. Shepard, and Jane S. Mouton, *Managing Intergroup Conflict in Industry* (Houston, Tex.: Gulf Publishing Co., 1964), pp. 76–77.

A crucial consideration in analyzing such conflicts concerns the extent to which parties are either invested with power, have access to power resources, or are able to locate channels that permit maneuvering within relevant power systems. The presence or absence of accepted and legitimated power resources predispose parties to the use of variants of coercive strategies. Consideration of the use of coercion in collective action turns on the relationships of conflicting parties to goals, power, and commitment.

Coercive action, from one point of view, has as its purpose the creation of a new circumstance in the conflict field in which other, less drastic, approaches become feasible. Aside from suppression and surrender, it serves to bring parties together as a consequence of contestual pressure when they formerly failed to find common cause for settlement. When coercion is effective, it leads to some pattern of accommodation or negotiated agreement or to some indicated action, such as legislative or administrative enactment, that is responsive to the question at issue. Coercion does not necessarily solve problems, but it can create the conditions under which competing parties can develop shared goals that supersede, in part, the basis for preexisting hostility. Thus strikes lead to the collective bargaining table, demonstrations to intercommunicate and legislative action, school boycotts to new forms of intergroup decision-making, and rent strikes to conferences that propose remedies.

While there are many ways of identifying coercive approaches in community organization and social action, it may be useful to think of the following four types of activity: suppression, radical protest, nonviolent protest, and violent protest. These are not necessarily mutually exclusive categories, but are suggestive and represent differing traditions on the American scene.

Modes of Conflict Management

The selection of appropriate strategies in any specific conflict situation is largely based on the degree to which the goals or objectives of the parties are linked. Such goal relationships vary from total convergence to total divergence. The location of goals in this spectrum determines the aptness of specific strategies. Four sets of goal relationships parallel the four strategies suggested.

When there is mutual identity of goals they are said to be *superordinate*. Such goal identity can either be implicit in the relationship between the parties, awaiting only a new perception or consciousness, or it can be invented or created through deliberate manipulation of the situation that calls forth creative effort at restructuring the relationship.[37] When goal differences can be submerged so that the discordant influences of goal conflict can be deflected, inhibited, or suppressed, at least overtly, one can speak of goal *sublimation*. There are many situations in which goal differences and subgoal mutuality are both operative simultaneously. Parties may seek differing objectives, yet find a common need to identify shared outcomes so that normative relationships can be established or reestablished. Such a mixed goal circumstance indicates some degree of goal *convergence*. Finally, when parties are motivated by clearly opposed goals and seek the imposition of one for the other, this is an instance of goal *divergence*.

The combination of four strategies and four sets of goal relationships yields sixteen possible relationships between goals and strategies and can be charted as shown in Figure 3. In practice the utility of a specific strategy will generally depend on the degree to which it is congruent with the goal circumstance that inheres in the conflict. In Figure 3 these tend to be located in boxes 1, 6, 11, and 16.

Goal relationships	Strategies of conflict management			
	Integrative	Utilitarian	Negotiative	Coercive
Identity	1	2	3	4
Sublimation	5	6	7	8
Convergence	9	10	11	12
Divergence	13	14	15	16

Figure 3. Goal Relationships and Strategies of Conflict Management

Because the power phenomenon is so central to conflict, it may be useful to speculate about its relationship to the four congruent conflict modes suggested. In Type 1, power may be a negligible ingredient. The identify of ends and the rationality implicit in the methodology of conflict management can override power differences. Problem-solving is likely to be less destructive and to require less energy expenditure than other approaches. In the case of Type 6, it is likely that power differences will be modest. Unequal power will tend to seek more assertive methods and be unprepared to pursue anything other than the full fruits of combat. Overwhelming power will tend to lead to coercive strategies and will characterize Type 16. When winner can take all, why settle for anything less than total victory? Power weakness on the other hand, which tends to be met by nonrecognition or by suppression on the part of those in authority, may present few alternatives to coercive action in circumstances when divergent goals have strong salience.

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[37] Richard E. Walton, "Two Strategies of Social Change and Their Dilemmas," *Journal of Applied Behavioral Change*, Vol. 1, No. 2 (April-May-June 1965), p. 171.

Type II is best indicated when there is a relative parity of power. Negotiation proceeds most productively when the power of the parties is roughly equal. Parties with superior power are wont to ignore or overwhelm the weaker foe rather than cohabit the conference table.

CONCLUSION

This discussion has underscored the importance of processes of social conflict for an understanding of planned action for social change. It stressed the positive and creative functions of conflict and suggested a set of concepts that are useful for analyzing conflict situations and in planning action. A purposed typology of conflict management strategies suggests routes for subsequent research that can shed further light on appropriate practitioner and client system response to potential or actual threat or disruption growing out of the conflict potential inherent in social and organizational relationships.

APPENDIX F

A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR TEACHING SOCIAL WORK METHODS AND SKILLS

Herbert Bisno

No attempt will be made here to provide a rationale for undergraduate social welfare (or social work) education, since the case for such programs has already been convincingly made and is increasingly being accepted. Nor is there much need to justify instruction in social work methods and skills at the undergraduate level! the logical basis for such instruction is clear. If students are to be prepared to perform appropriately in social work roles, then we obviously have a responsibility to ensure that they have an opportunity to learn the skills deemed essential for the performance of these roles. It may be argued, of course, that such skills should be learned on the job, or even that no special skills are necessary in positions for which undergraduate education is sufficient. The evidence is strongly in the opposite direction. The demands put on the baccalaureate social worker do seem to require special knowledge, attitudes, and skills. And it is the function of colleges and universities to create an opportunity for such learning to take place in a manner consistent with generalized understanding and application.

This is not to deny in any way the critical importance of staff development programs for the purpose of providing a specification of application and a sharpening of focus. However, the value of in-service training is not restricted to just one level of academic attainment. If undergraduate and graduate departments and schools are doing what they do best, then staff development opportunities are not only desirable, but, in fact, essential if the graduate of any level of formal education is to be prepared to function as an efficient practitioner in a given organization.

In a sense, these introductory remarks have been negatively oriented; that is, they have stressed what will not be provided in this paper. Now yet another disclaimer must be made. What will be offered is the preliminary formulation of a theoretical framework rather than a firm theoretical statement. This disclaimer is neither nominal nor born out of an overdeveloped sense of modesty on the part of the writer. Rather, it accurately reflects the writer's belief that the radical recasting of social work methods that will be suggested here is necessarily tentative, incomplete, and subject to drastic revision as further thought is devoted to the problems under consideration. Everything written here must be thought of as the introductory statement of a position, subject to change without prior notice.

The teaching of social work methods and skills at the undergraduate level is just one aspect of a total curricular configuration involving both horizontal interconnections and vertical steps in a sequential pattern. Other content areas of the undergraduate and graduate programs have been explicated in works published by the CSWE and will not be further developed, except as closely related subject matter affected by spin-offs from the main theme of this paper. It should be clear, furthermore, that, since social work methods are not seen as being discontinuous in substance between the undergraduate and graduate levels, the call for a recasting of the method and skill areas obviously has implications for all levels of social work. A distinction can be made, of course, at the point of determining which methods and skills should be taught where, by what means, and with what hoped-for educational outcomes.

The overall framework within which methods and skills are placed might be thought of as the components of social work practice. These components are outlined in Figure 1.[1] It will be maintained that instruction at the undergraduate level should include all of these components and that the linkages between the methods, skills and the other elements ought to be presented in an explicit and integral manner. This does not imply that all of the components have to be stressed equally in a single course or sequence. But it is important that the content, even though treated with varying degrees of intensity in different segments of the curriculum, be interrelated at some point. This, though, is essentially a matter of curriculum organization—a subject tangential to the main concern of this paper. Primary focus here is on reconceptualizing the methods and techniques in relation to client and other relevant transactional systems. As a starting point it may be useful to specify what the writer means by methods and techniques.

"Technique" will be used to refer to the specific procedures and operations utilized in a given discipline. Techniques may be used in carrying out an artistic work, in a scientific investigation, or in the performance of professional practice. They differ from one another in the scope of their application, some being appropriate only to narrowly defined contexts others playing a part in a wide variety of inquiries.[2]

"Methods" are techniques sufficiently generalized to be common to a discipline, practice, or range of disciplines and practices. Formal definitions stress that "method" refers to a general and orderly way of doing something, of utilizing procedures.[3]

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[1] There may be one unfamiliar concept in the listing of the components—the "System of Orientation." It is defined as follows: "A system of orientation is a web or complex of items of knowledge, attitudes, values, and norms of diverse sorts in terms of which a group (or person) orients itself (or himself) to a situation (comprehends the situation and chooses appropriate courses of action)." Julius Gould and William L. Kolb, (ed.), *A Dictionary of the Social Sciences*, compiled under the auspices of UNESCO (New York: Free Press, 1964), p. 713.

[2] Abraham Kaplan, *The Conduct of Inquiry: Methodology for Behavioral Science* (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1964), p. 23. The writer is indebted to Kaplan's formulations of method and techniques even though they are not followed to the letter.

Although "methodology" technically refers to the systematic study of the assumptions, characteristics, and principles of methods (or of a method), it is often used to apply "in a colloquial sense to the totality of investigative procedures and techniques customary in a specific science (an informal plural of 'method') . . . ."[4]

It would seem desirable for the designation given a method to suggest something about the nature of the problems to which it is to be applied and to provide at least a clue as to the techniques subsumed by it. With this in mind, let us look at the methods of social work—in particular, social casework, social group work, community organization, and social action. What do they tell us? Anything at all about the nature of the problems involved? No! Is there any hint as to the procedures encompassed? No! What, then, do these methods suggest?

Social casework suggests either a concern with an individual person qualifying for consideration as a client, whatever these qualifications may be, or an individual instance. In other words, there is a suggestion as to the size dimension of the actual or potential object of methodological intervention, but nothing is offered as to the nature of the problem facing the client or what steps might be taken to cope with it.

In social group work essentially the same phenomenon exists. The system (after all, group workers do not restrict themselves only to pluralities that have all the social-psychological characteristics of "true" groups). The name of the method hints at neither the purpose of intervention nor the operational procedures.

The concept of community organization (or variants, such as community welfare organization and the like) is somewhat more instructive, since it contains reference to a process—with a limited clue being provided as to procedures. The designation of this method also implies that it is concerned with a macro system. However, the nature of the problem requiring intervention, unless one infers that invoking this method automatically means that the client system is underorganized, with a postulated need for organizational operations to be undertaken. But even this is not informative.

Social action seems to get any means it might have from tradition, since the label provides virtually no clues as to problem characteristics or operational procedures. The "auxiliary" methods of administration and research have more informative titles, but even these might profit from clarification.

The problems with the present classification of social work methods are, however, much more serious than just the aforementioned "sins of omission." In fact, the present conceptualization of social work methods seems to be gravely misleading. It is probably not too intemperate to say that both social work education and practice have been confused and

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[3] *See*, for example, *Funk and Wagnalls New Practical Standard Dictionary*, Britannica World Language Edition, (New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1956) , p. 840.

[4] Gould and Kolb, eds. op. cit., p. 425.

SOCIAL WORK AS A PROFESSION

within a

SOCIO CULTURAL MILIEU

operating through

ORGANIZATION AND ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTIVITIES

confronts

PROBLEMS IN SOCIAL FUNCTIONING
ACTUAL OR POTENTIAL

with a

GOAL OF MAINTAINING AND
ENHANCING THE SOCIAL
FUNCTIONING OF PERSONS, SINGLY OR
IN COLLECTIVE UNITS,

a variety of

OCCUPATIONAL ROLES IN VARIOUS FIELDS
OF PRACTICE AND INSTITUTIONAL SECTORS

acting within a

SYSTEM OF ORIENTATION

by means of the skilled use of selected,
but not mutually exclusive or monopolized,

METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

used in interaction with

CLIENT AND OTHER RELEVANT
TRANSACTIONAL SYSTEMS

and subject to

EVALUATION

Figure 1. Overall Framework

distorted by an inappropriate methodological framework. For example, most social work instruction equates (or nearly equates) casework with one-to-one methodological skills. The reality, is that social workers professionally use a wide range of one-to-one methods and techniques in a host of transactional relationships (by no means just with clients) in all fields of social work activity, including those identified with the existing social work methods. Yet training in one-to-one methodological skills (other than in just one variant, casework) is extremely limited, with almost no systematic conceptual base. In saying this there is no intent to deemphasize the critical importance of that one type of dyadic relationship referred to as casework. The concern is about the absence of other effective and formalized one-to-one methods. Comparable examples could be related to all of the primary methods as they are now conceptualized.

Thus it appears that the inclusion of a quantitative attribute of the potential transactional unit in the designation of the method (without suggesting the nature of the problems or appropriate problem-solving techniques) has led to an illicit bond between a given method and a given, but arbitrarily restricted and limiting, client system. This faculty conceptualization of social work methods appears to have retarded concentration on the characteristics of many of the problem areas confronted by these methods, and has slowed or even prevented the conscious acquisition of a whole set of potentially useful, but thus far unused (in a systematic sense), techniques. One of the implications of the position being advanced is that the controversy between a methods approach to social work as against a problem-solving orientation gains much of its substance from poorly conceived methods rather than representing a true "forced choice" situation. This is not to suggest that an overemphasis on the protocol of methods, as compared with a dominant concern with the substance of the confronting problems, would always be avoided even if social work recast its methods in the suggested direction. But there is a considerable difference between postulating the source of the controversy between the problem-solvers and the methodologists as residing in part from inadequacies in the conceptual framework of the methods as contrasted with the assumption that we are faced with mutually exclusive alternatives.

Unfortunately, the most popular "reforms" being advocated seem to be in the direction of conceptualizing a generic social work method or in teaching a unified course in the present social work methods. These "solutions" are of questionable efficacy. Before we attempt to isolate, integrate, or synthesize the common elements in the existing social work methods, it is necessary to reexamine the existing methods themselves. A combination of badly conceptualized and misleading methodologies compound our problems. This suggests that the first step should be an attempt to conceptualize more adequately the methodology of social work. We will then be in a much better position to examine the identified methods in terms of commonalities. It is this first step that will now be attempted.

The formulation that follows is based on an attempt to examine what social workers are actually called on to do in the course of their occupational roles, as well as drawing on statements concerning social work practice, both as presently constituted and in terms of projected patterns. The conceptual framework being advanced here goes part of the way toward meeting the criteria for a viable approach to social work methodology. The designations used at least hint at the nature of the problem being encountered and the techniques needing to be called into play. (It is true, though, that not all of the labels are equally effective in this respect.) Furthermore, the proposed classification limits the a priori association of method with a specific category of client or other professional transactional system. This enhances flexibility in the application of the methods and lessens the likelihood of a conceptual straightjacket. Identified methods might be used singly or in combination, concurrently or sequentially, in coping with a given problem or problem area. Finally, the wide range of designated methods greatly increases the scope of the techniques that would fall within the purview of social work. In turn this suggests that there could be an expansion of appropriate professional roles as well as an improvement in performance in existing professional activities.

The element of skill comes into play at two points: skill in the selection of the method or methods to be used and skill in the use of the methods themselves. A consequence of the fact that the proposed scheme increases the range of methods would be an augmentation and extension of the skill requirements demanded of social workers, both in the "strategy of intervention" (or nonintervention) and in the methodological applications themselves.

Let us now examine in a little greater detail the methods and transactional systems described in Figure 2, keeping in mind that these formulations need always to be seen within the context of the totality of practice components as outlined in Figure 1.

THE METHODS

Adversary. This method might be appropriate in problem situations involving actual or potential conflicts of interest or purpose. Examples of such situations would be competition for budgetary allocations on the part of several agencies, conflict between a client and an agency over the amount and quality of service provided, or disagreement between a practitioner and agency administrator over confidentiality of records. Among the potential techniques that might be used are negotiation, bargaining, or conflict-generation through articulation and advocacy of competing interests.[5] Some of the professional roles in which use of this method might appropriately be made are those of serviceprovider, advocate, employee or employer (social workers), budget committee member, and so on.

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[5] An interesting analysis of processes ("action patterns") such as those involved in associational and dissociational relationships is to be found in an old but still useful work of Leopold von Wiess and Howard Becker, *Systematic Sociology* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1932). Recent books that offer some interesting ideas relevant to this general area are William A. Gamson, *Power and Discontent* (Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press, 1968); Peter Blau, *Exchange and Power in Social Life* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1964); and Kenneth E. Boulding, *Conflict and Defense: A General Theory* (New York: Harper & Row, 1962).

Conciliatory. This method might be appropriate in problem situations involving a desire to lessen or eliminate conflict or competition. Examples of such situations would be two organizations wishing to merge, a couple desiring a reconciliation, or several communities wishing to cooperate in establishing a single social planning council. Among the potential techniques that might be used are compromise or synthesis of views, maximizing of similarities and minimizing of differences between the parties, acceptance of subordinate position, clarification of misinterpretation, and the like.[6] Some of the professional roles in which this method might appropriately be used are marital counseling, community development, and social planning. Obviously both the adversary and conciliatory methods might be used by persons in the same role and even in regard to the same problem area. The two methods are, in a sense, reciprocals of each other and might well be compacted into a single method.

Developmental. This method might be appropriate in those situations in which the problem revolves around a lack of resources or a desire to mobilize and maximize those that exist, either in actuality or potentially. The techniques that might be used range from role-playing to the coordination and establishment of a new power center in a community. Among the professional roles in which this method might be used are these of community organizer, club adviser, or public welfare worker.

Facilitative-instructional.[7] This method might appropriately be used in situations in which the problem centers around the need to transmit professional knowledge and skill to another person or group who wishes to perform in a social work or related role. The techniques that might be used include advice-giving, performance evaluations, formal lecturing, role-playing, and serving as a role model. This method could be used by social work teachers, consultant-supervisors, and guidance counselors.

Knowledge development and testing. This method might be appropriate for those situations in which the problem is lack of knowledge about a professional matter, including the need to evaluate results of programs. The essential techniques would be those involved in theory-building and research, including all of the methodological procedures. Among those who might be expected to use this method are researchers and methodologists, although persons in various practitioner roles might use it as well, even if to a lesser degree and in less depth.

Restorative. This method might appropriately be called into use when the problem situation involves the restoration of a given level of social functioning such as might exist when there is impaired role performance or deterioration in community relationships. It would include

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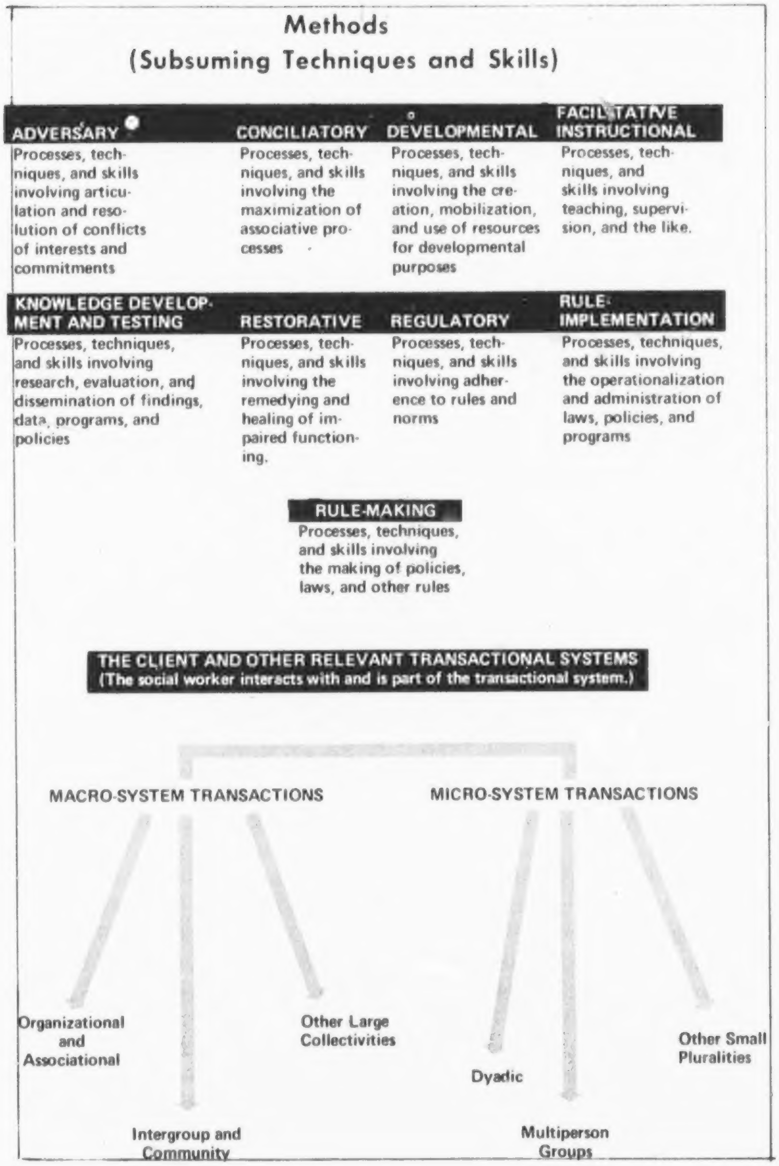
[6] The same techniques may be used as parts of different methods.

[7] The writer is indebted to Dr. Gordon Hearn and the Faculty of the Portland State College School of Social Work for the concept "facilitative," even though as used by them it refers to a "component" rather than a method.


Methods
(Subsuming Techniques and Skills)

ADVERSARY
Processes, techniques, and skills involving articulation and resolution of conflicts of interests and commitments

CONCILIATORY
Processes, techniques, and skills involving the maximization of associative processes

DEVELOPMENTAL
Processes, techniques, and skills involving the creation, mobilization, and use of resources for developmental purposes

FACILITATIVE INSTRUCTIONAL
Processes, techniques, and skills involving teaching, supervision, and the like.

KNOWLEDGE DEVELOPMENT AND TESTING
Processes, techniques, and skills involving research, evaluation, and dissemination of findings, data, programs, and policies

RESTORATIVE
Processes, techniques, and skills involving the remedying and healing of impaired functioning.

REGULATORY
Processes, techniques, and skills involving adherence to rules and norms

RULE-IMPLEMENTATION
Processes, techniques, and skills involving the operationalization and administration of laws, policies, and programs

RULE-MAKING
Processes, techniques, and skills involving the making of policies, laws, and other rules

THE CLIENT AND OTHER RELEVANT TRANSACTIONAL SYSTEMS
(The social worker interacts with and is part of the transactional system.)

MACRO-SYSTEM TRANSACTIONS
MICRO-SYSTEM TRANSACTIONS
Organizational and Associational
Intergroup and Community
Other Large Collectivities
Dyadic
Multiperson Groups
Other Small Pluralities

Figure 2. The Methods and Transactional Systems

the quasi-therapeutic role taken by many social workers. Among the techniques that might be used are counseling, sensitivity training, and provision of material resources.[8] The professional roles in which this method might be used include juvenile court counselors, mental health specialists, child welfare workers, and community organizers.

Regulatory. This method might appropriately be used in situations in which the problem concerns the need for the regulation of social behavior, that is, social control through achieving adherence to norms, rules, or laws. Among the techniques that could be used are rewards, punishment, conditioning, provision of information, and analysis. This method might be used in a wide range of professional roles, including those of correctional counselor, mental health clinic social worker, family social worker, administrator, and legislative representative.

Rule-implementation. When the situation calls for the implementation of laws, policies, programs, and procedures, this method might be used. The techniques involved include those of administration, policy interpretation, and translation of policy into programmatic terms. Although this method is primarily identified with those in administrative roles (at different levels), it might appropriately be used by virtually all practitioners.

Rulemaking.[9] This method might be used when a problem situation would best be handled by the formulation of a new rule, policy, or passage of a law. Among the techniques utilized are legislative lobbying, policy briefs, public statements, and debates. Although this method could be used in varying degrees by a large number of practitioners, its most frequent users would likely be policymakers, legislative representatives, and administrators.

In concluding this discussion of specific methods, it is important to emphasize the fact that problems, roles, methods, and techniques are not inextricably linked in a particular configuration. That is, the same method and techniques may be used in a variety of roles, and different methods and techniques may be used by persons in the same professional roles, depending on the nature of the problem being confronted. In this connection it might be observed that although the provision of concrete services is a critical aspect of social work it seems to be less a method than an all-pervading procedure that should be used as a part of any or all of the specified methods. Hence the absence of "provision of concrete services" as a separate identified method is the result of an analytical decision rather than an ideological downgrading of bread in favor of either cake or psychological sustenance.

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[8] Social work is just one of the helping services with methodological problems and confusions. For example, counseling is sometimes viewed as a part of a discipline, as a technique, as a method, and even as a professional designation subsuming behaviors such as community organization procedures.

[9] For a short but stimulating and "off-beat" discussion of "rules," *see* Anselm Strauss et al., *Psychiatric Ideologies and Institutions* (New York: Free Press, 1964), pp. 313–315.

MAJOR POINTS

The full significance of the proposed approach to social work methods does not become clear unless the methodological scheme is seen in relation to the lower half of Figure 2. "The Client and Other Relevant Transactional Systems." The major points implicit there are these:

1. The professional activities of the social worker include not only transactions with clients but with many other systems[10] such as colleagues, organizational subordinates and superordinates, lay persons, indigenous nonprofessionals, members of other occupational groups, relevant community organizations of all sorts, and so on. As long as these transactions are undertaken by the social worker in a social work role, they are part of his professional responsibilities. Hence the methods and techniques necessary for effective interaction with *all* of these transactional systems, not just with clients, need to be viewed as requisite elements in his professional training—elements that warrant systematic inclusion (both in terms of knowledge and skill) in the curriculum. It may be argued, of course, that the concept "client" can be expanded to include all of these types of transactional systems. However, this simply masks important distinctions (e.g., differences between negotiating with a boss and counseling a person who needs help). The most convincing evidence of this failure to differentiate is the fact that many of the important methods and techniques required to be effective with these other professional transactional systems are not usually found in social work education today.

2. All professional activities that involve interaction are seen as transactional in character.

3. The social worker single person interactional unit is viewed as a two-person group—that is, as a dyad.

4. The methods theoretically can be applied to transactional systems of any size, although in a few instances there are intrinsic reasons why they are more likely to be used in practice with certain types of systems. In contrast with the linkage of system size with the method in the existing classification of social work methods, the proposed conceptual framework postulates no necessary connections of this sort. Hence any of the methods specified in the top portion of Figure 2 can be applied to any of the transactional systems listed below. The implications of this for social work education, as well as for practice, are profoundly important. The methods would have to be taught and learned so that they could be applied to any of the systems. Hence, existing courses in casework, group work, and so on would have to be entirely recast. For practice, the proposed scheme would mean the speeding up of the already well-advanced process of breaking the links between given methods and agencies, problems, and fields of specialization.

In the development of any methodological system there are the twin dangers of imposing a neat and logical structure on an intractable reality and of overlooking the total complex gestalt of the methodological enterprise. Both of these perils are highlighted in the following statement:

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[10] The writer is not a systems devotee; the concept is used because it can be applied to units of all sizes.

> Methodology must remain alert, Michael Scriven recently warned, to the logician's perennial temptation—make the portrait neat and perhaps the sitter will become neat. Usually there is more to be learned from a study of disarray than is gained by intentionally disregarding it. It may even be that what we see as a disarray is to more perceptive eyes a style of dress both useful and elegant.
>
> But the simplicity of any one method is not meant to deaden awareness of the complexity of the process of inquiry taken as a whole. If we are to do justice to this complexity, I think it is hard to improve on P. W. Bridgman's remark that "the scientist has no other method than doing his damnedest."[11]

It is hoped that in this attempt to reconceptualize social work methods the writer has contributed to a recognition of complexity, rather than reinforcing an untenable unity. It is also to be hoped that by moving from practice to an analytical classification, rather than going the other way, the superimposition of a personal logic on the actual behavioral patterns of those performing social work tasks has been avoided.

ADVANTAGES

There may be well-motivated attempts to match the proposed conceptual approach with the existing view of social work methods and to suggest that perhaps that which is being recommended simply represents a "distinction without much difference." This is not the case. The recasting of social work methods appears to have these distinct disadvantages:

1. It expands the methodological range and the boundaries and repertoire of relevant techniques. This expansion in turn implies a redefinition of various problem areas relevant to social work, since one's conceptualization of problems and their solutions is often narrowed and distorted by a "trained incapacity" resulting from limitations in method and technique. This point is incisively and cleverly made by Kaplan in his discussion of the "law of the instrument":

> I call it the *law of the instrument*, and it may be formulated as follows: Give a small boy a hammer, and he will find that everything he encounters needs pounding. It comes as no particular surprise to discover that a scientist formulates problems in a way which requires for their solution just those techniques in which he himself is especially skilled.[12]

2. It breaks the artificial and distorting linkage between given methods and specified (primarily in quantitative terms) transactional systems.

3. It expands the concept of the social worker's role (or roles) to include a much wider range of transactional relationships by not limiting professional activity to transactions with a client system. This in turn automatically widens the range of relevant methods and techniques.

4. It provides greater denotative value to the methodological labels

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[11] Kaplan, op. cit., pp. 26–27.

[12] Ibid., p. 28.

insofar as the problems to which the methods are addressed are suggested by the designation, as are appropriate techniques. In this sense there is a sharpening of methodological focus.

5. It suggests a fundamental reorganization of a key segment of social work education. It is hoped that, even if this specific attempt at reconceptualization is not accepted, others will be stimulated to reevaluate the present approach to social work methods.

6. It is likely in the long run to broaden the range of students who select social work as their career. That is, students with certain types of interests, backgrounds, and capacities, who are now under represented in social work, might increase their representation in the profession. After all, the nature of the delineation of social work roles and the way in which its methods are conceptualized go a long way toward giving content to the dual questions of "What is a social worker?" and "What qualities are consistent with these roles and methodological requirements?"

> What we want the future professional to become is a matter of grave consequence for all—for education and the field of practice—just as is the debate over the *method* of selection. The answer will dictate the fate of the profession itself.[13]

And what we want the future professional to become is obviously influenced by our perception of what he should be expected to be able to do.[14]

IMPLICATIONS OF THE PROPOSAL

Now the time has come to turn to the direct implications of this proposal for undergraduate social work education. This section of the paper will be organized by means of a set of questions.

Would students educated in the manner suggested by the proposed theoretical framework find themselves ill-prepared to perform many of the existing social work roles as well as some just now appearing on the horizon?

The answer to this question is essentially "no." It needs to be reiterated that what has been suggested in the prior section is *not* basically a reconceptualization of the present responsibilities and roles of the social worker. What is being argued is that there is at present an incongruity between the problem-solving demands confronting social work practice and existing professional preparation. And there is a gap between many of the existing characteristics of social work practice and the prevailing methodologies and skills. This does not imply, though, that what exists here is a case of "advanced practice" and "retarded education." Such a view would distort the reality, since practice requirements may not, by and large, been reconceptualized by practitioners (including administrators). This fact becomes strikingly clear when at joint meetings the educator asks the practitioner for suggestions as to what he should be teaching his students. The responses to such questions tend for the most part to be highly stereotyped or so generalized as to afford little guidance for curriculum construction. It is true, however, that in the long run there will likely be a reciprocal feedback from methodological revisions on the delineation of professional roles and the clustering of professional tasks.

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[13] Sidney Berengarten and Irene H. Kerrigan, *Interviewing and Personality Assessment: Selection of Social Work Students* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1968), p. 87.

[14] For an interesting presentation of a "dynamic role model" approach to curriculum-building, *see* Eugene J. Koprowski, "A Dynamic Role-Centered Approach for Developing a Generic Baccalaureate Curriculum in The Helping Services," in *Undergraduate Education and Manpower Utilization in the Helping Services* (Boulder, Colo.: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1967).

Is it feasible and/or appropriate to prepare undergraduate students in all of the proposed methods?

It is feasible, at differing skill levels, to prepare undergraduate students in all of the methods. For example, let us look at the facilitative-instructional method. At the School of Community Service and Public Affairs of the University of Oregon the faculty hope to combine a teaching role with the primary learning role of the undergraduate student in the belief that these roles are mutually enhancing and complementary. This will be done by using upper-division students in the instruction of lower-division students, especially in the sphere of field observation. It is true, of course, that this is seen as a preliminary exposure to the facilitative-instructional method, but it is a systematic beginning. Hence the real issue seems to be which of the methods will receive most emphasis. A definitive conclusion on this matter probably requires more extensive (and continuing) studies of practice roles than have been made thus far. However, at the moment, the writer would probably rank the methods in terms of appropriate skill expectations (from high to low) at the undergraduate level as follows: *Category A*—adversary, conciliatory, developmental, and regulatory; *Category B*—restorative; *Category C*—facilitative-instructional, knowledge development and testing (as producer), rule-implementation, and rulemaking.

The fact that a method is listed in the first category does not mean, of course, that the skill attainment will be at a sophisticated level; rather, the expectation is in relation to the other methods. All that can be said at this point is that there should be a reasonable correspondence between the skill level that is reached and the prospective role requirements.

A question may be raised as to the organization of the methods content at the undergraduate level. It is doubtful that at this time anyone knows which specific structuring of the material related to methods is apt to prove most efficient and effective. The writer's own inclination would be to construct a course encompassing the adversary, conciliatory, developmental, regulatory, and restorative methods. The knowledge-development and testing method might be handled in a somewhat broader-than-usual course on research, even at an elementary level. A separate course in rule-implementation would appear to be justified, while rule-making might also be an independent unit, or its content could be incorporated in one or more courses in the area of the social services and social policy (and law).[15] The facilitative-instructional methods content could be provided in a special seminar for those students who have specific responsibilities in this realm, although a certain amount of relevant material (e.g., application of learning theories) might well be included in the more inclusive methods course.[16]

It may be asked whether the suggested offerings can be fitted into a liberalizing undergraduate program. Judging by experience in the School of Community Service and Public Affairs, the answer is affirmative. This does not mean that the school is now covering the same content as is recommended in this paper, but the present structure of the undergraduate program would allow for it. It may be noticed that the writer is assuming that there is nothing inherently illiberal in teaching methods and skill; to do otherwise would be to emulate those 20th-century thinkers who are preoccupied with debating nineteenth-century issues. Obviously, though, the treatment of the content is all important in ensuring a liberating course of instruction.

How would the actual skill-learning be attained in an undergraduate program using the proposed theoretical framework?

A summary answer would be through classroom instruction of a traditional and innovative character, through field instruction, and through seminars, as well as through reading, conferences, and special project courses that would provide linkage between the classroom and the field. The approach being recommended would necessitate atypical as well as traditional social work field instruction placements. Yet, with ingenuity and undergraduate program can offer at least some skill-training in each of the identified methods. For example, even participation in policy and administrative aspects of a school or department can contribute to skill development in the rulemaking and ruleimplementation methods. While students should not have the determining say in matters of curriculum, instruction and so on, much more student involvement in policy making than has traditionally been the case is both feasible and desirable and can be used as an integral part of the educational experience. Equally relevant skill-learning experiences related to the other methods may also be discovered in our communities and universities.

Would acceptance of the proposed theoretical framework mean loss of a social work focus and identity in undergraduate programs?

It is true that social work has no monopoly on the methods encompassed by the proposed theoretical framework. However, since analysis is consistent with present and proposed social work roles, it follows that the lack of uniqueness of the methods is not a consequence of the conceptualization but rather a simple reflection of the reality of contemporary practice. It seems fair to conclude that social work at present does not possess a high degree of functional specificity, nor can it claim a specialized, concrete technology that requires distinctive skills. These lacks probably combine to lessen social work's prestige and to make it more difficult for the social worker to win public acceptance of his "virtuoso role."[17] Nevertheless, it would be an error to minimize the particularity of that total configuration that is known as social work. As long as the methods are taught and learned within the context of the components of practice (Figure 1), including those especially vital ones of "goal" and "system of orientation," the proposed theoretical framework should offer no threat to the identity and integrity of social work. On the contrary, the methodological approach being suggested should enhance social work's problem-solving abilities and make it more flexible and versatile—important virtues indeed in a peirod of exceptionally rapid and profound social changes that include the blending, reformulation, and proliferation of professional roles.

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[15] A recent book in the policy-making area includes a very interesting appendix on "Policy-Knowledge and the Disciplines of Knowledge." Yebezkel Dror, *Public Policy Making Re-examined* (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1968), Appendix C.

[16] Some specific suggestions for content in general methods courses have been advanced in a paper prepared for a Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education conference by Dr. Joan Acker of the School of Community Service and Public Affairs, University of Oregon. Joan Acker, "Content for Methods Courses in Undergraduate Curricula for the Helping Services," in *Developing Programs in the Helping Services: Field Experience, Methods Courses, Employment Implications* (Boulder, Colo.: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1968).

CONCLUSION

Although the specific focus of this paper has been the undergraduate level, the argument extends to all of social work practice and education. So it is perhaps fitting that these concluding remarks should embrace the total field.

Contemporary social work finds itself beset by harsh attacks. While some of these are embarrassingly well taken, others are characterized by a poverty of analysis and sometimes even by a lack of identification with the human condition. Social work is not incurably ill—the reports of its demise seem both grossly exaggerated and distinctly premature. But while social work is not on its death bed, neither is it in the full flower of health (of course, social work is not unique in this respect). Social work's continued vitality is dependent on its combining an eagerness to support reasoned change, based on careful appraisal, with an inner-directedness as to purpose.

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[17] Peter Nokes, *The Professional Task in Welfare Practice* (London, England: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1967), esp. chap. 2.

APPENDIX G

Zelda Samoff

THE AFFECTIVE COMPONENT OF SOCIAL WELFARE CONTENT

Beginning assumptions of this report are as follows:

1. Except for the sake of analysis, it is impossible to separate the affective from the cognitive realm or to separate curriculum from methods of instruction and field practice. Each must be seen in relation to the other and tested against the other.

2. Knowledge, and therefore curriculum, is developmental and generative. When concepts are developed and larger gestalts are formed, new insights emerge, new questions are raised, and new knowledge develops. Therefore, curriculum must provide for an facilitate generative feedback and the recreation of curriculum.

3. Curriculum guides or resources should
   a. Describe, but not limit, notions about content.
   b. Facilitate developmental and sequential use of these notions.
   c. Encourage overlearning through reintroduction, review, and new applications of essential notions.
   d. Suggest a variety of content areas in which to accomplish these goals.
   e. Interweave cognitive, affective, and skill components, as well as treat them separately.

The task of this report is:

1. Excluded from discussion here are some relevant and important items:
   a. Definitions and enumeration of social work values to be taught.
   b. Any description of total affective content. These are excluded as beyond the competence of the writer, the time and resources available, and because they are dealt with in great depth in a variety of sources. (See the bibliography at the end of this paper.)

2. This presentation is not a definitive, authoritative analysis of this complex problem. It is, rather, a limited presentation of some notions of one individual in the hope that it will lead to a more comprehensive and knowledgeable study.

3. Focus is on two notions about affective content:

a. The way the subject content is structured will hinder or facilitate affective learning.

b. All content, affective and cognitive, must be sequential and developmental.

4. Courses are not specified, but limited illustrations are provided of application of the two notions listed in broad areas of social welfare content.

5. Strong emphasis is placed on a framework provided by Ausubel because this seems useful. (See Supplement 1) It is by no means the only framework that might serve this purpose; it is simply an illustrative one.

6. Content developed by Bisno and Romanyshyn is illustrated briefly.

AFFECTIVE LEARNING

> One objective of learning, over and beyond mastery of a body of knowledge, is to create a better or happier or more courageous or more sensitive or more honest man. Conduct of life is not independent of how it is that one learned what one knows.[1]

Bruner points out that knowledge is instrumental to values because it can amplify evil intent or magnanimity. Curriculum must be constructed in terms of the instrumental assistance that knowledge imparts to the exercise of values.

Piaget describes cognitive and affective functioning as interdependent:

> Affective life, like intellectual life, is a continual adaptation, and the two are not only parallel but interdependent, since feelings express the interest and value given to actions of which intelligence provides the structure. Since affective life is adaptation, it also implies continual assimilation of present situations to earlier ones—assimilation which gives rise to affective schemas or relatively stable modes of feeling and reacting—and continual accommodation of these schemas to the present situation.[2]

Assuming, then, the interrelationship of cognitive and affective learning, one needs to explore the attributes of each in order to understand their interactions.

Figures 1 and 2 are condensed versions of cognitive and affective objectives expressed theoretically for the purpose of curriculum development. The cognitive objectives are developed logically, building from the simpler specifics and definitions through increasingly complex cognitive modes to the most complex theories and structures. The affective objectives are developed psychologically, from minimum awareness that a phenomenon exists to a philosophy of life that includes priorities, abstract understandings, and a notion of dynamic equilibrium. The authors regard this task as far from complete, having encountered the following difficulties:

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[1] Jerome S. Bruner, ed., *Learning About Learning:* The Structure of Knowledge, Cooperative Research Monograph 15, OE 12019, Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education & Welfare, p. 203.

[2] Jean Piaget, *Play, Dreams and Imitation in Childhood* (New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1951), p. 80.

1. Obtaining precision.

2. Determining from teachers which learning experiences are appropriate.

3. Describing appropriate overt behaviors (internal feelings are equally significant.)

4. Testing procedures in the affective domain are still primitive.

This calls to mind the remarks of H. A. Kramers, the Dutch theoretical physicist, cited by Dalton Kramers.[3]

> My own pet notion is that in the world of human thought, and in physical science particularly, the most important and most fruitful concepts are those to which it is impossible to attach a well defined meaning. (The discussion of science, ethics, and morality that follows this, as well as other statements by Dalton, provide good material for an examination of values in research.)

Figure 3 represents an attempt to chart the realm of affective content, including hoped-for outcomes in increasing self-awareness. The basic proposition here is that the way the curriculum is structured can help or hinder affective learning, and that the organization of cognitive ideas using the Ausubel framework will facilitate and encourage affective learning-whether the content deals with either cognitive or affective elements.

It is an interesting fact that in most instances subject matter is organized in a logical manner. That is, content is developed in an ordered fashion, so that potentially many people can follow the logic and presumably learn the content. Yet learning theory tells us that there are psychological factors in learning and cognitive and affective structures in the learner that must be understood in order for meaningful learning (as opposed to rote learning) to occur. The latter notion is well developed in relation to teaching method, learning experiences, and techniques, but it is just beginning to be examined in relation to the structure of the curriculum. Thus, it seems reasonable to explore the following proposition: There are both cognitive and affective aspects in the structure of curriculum that parallel the cognitive and affective structure of the learner.

ORGANIZING CURRICULUM

In achieving developmental and sequential curriculum that transcends discrete courses in undergraduate social welfare education, Boehm's three organizing principles in curriculum seemed incomplete.[4]

In an earlier paper the writer developed this idea as follows:

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[3] Melville Dalton, *Preconceptions and Methods in Men Who Manage*, Reprint 146 (Los Angeles: Institute of Industrial Relations, University of California, 1965), p. 58.

[4] Werner W. Boehm, *Objectives of the Social Work Curriculum of the Future*, Vol. I, of the Curriculum Study (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1959), Appendix A, p. 244.

> Boehm cites three organizing principles in currimulum: (1) continuity; (2) sequence; and (3) integration. Continuity deals with vertical ordering of ideas, integration with both horizontal and vertical. I would like to add a fourth principle, development. Developmental learning unites the logical structure of the curriculum with the psychological needs and interests of the learner, and facilitates movement from a big idea to small and focused parts of the big idea; it also provides opportunity to plant seeds of ideas which will germinate later in the course or in subsequent ones.[5]

"Organizer" Ideas

What are the implications of this added dimension for curriculum theory? Not only are there important ideas crucial to the subject matter of social welfare, but there are also effective ways to order and organize these ideas that relate to the readiness and experiential background of the student. Ausubel calls these ideas *organizers*, which are introduced in advance of the learning material itself and are presented at high levels of abstraction, generality, and inclusiveness: "The principle function of the organizer is to bridge the gap between what the learner already knows and what he needs to know before he can successfully learn the task at hand." [6] Ausubel suggests that these organizers are the "ideational scaffolding" for more detailed and differentiated material to be learned, so broad that every learner can connect previous learning with the organizer. An organizer used for a specific piece of content can lead to organizers of a high level and can facilitate sequential organization.

Let us try to illustrate this in a simplistic way. In the subject matter of social welfare in its institutional context, one might begin with this organizer: Social welfare reflects the historical, political, social, economic, spiritual, and scientific cultures in a given time and place. It is sufficiently general, inclusive, and abstract so that:

1. Every college student can find a connection with it in his life experience and/or in his knowledge base.

2. Every subject matter area can be linked to it for a variety of purposes, functions, and focuses. It can be related to psychosocial foundations of behavior, social welfare institutions, the history and values of social welfare, social work as a profession, social work interventive methods, services, and so on.

3. It can provide or lead to larger generalizations as well as to suborganizers, propositions, and concepts; it can also provide a framework for data, methodological approaches, and evaluation.

4. It can move back and forth in time and space and may facilitate the development of educated guesses and predictions.

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[5] Zelda Samoff, "The Continuum Revisited—The Undergraduate Underpinnings," in *Continuities in Undergraduate Social Welfare Education* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1969) .

[6] David P. Ausubel, "Some Psychological Aspects of Curriculum Theory," *Samplings*, Vol. 1, No. 3. (April 1968) , Future Schools Study Project, Albuquerque Public Schools, Alburquerque, N. Mex.

5. It meets the tests of continuity, sequence, integration, and development.

While the task of identifying basic organizing concepts in social welfare is difficult, it is not impossible, and much preliminary thinking has already occurred and is developing.

Differentiating Subject Matter

The next step in Ausubel's process is the *progressive differentiation* of the subject matter. He makes two assumptions:

> . . . it is less difficult for human beings to grasp the differentiated aspects of a previously learned, more inclusive whole than to formulate the inclusive whole from its previously learned differentiated parts, and that an individual's organization of the content of a particular subject matter discipline in his own mind consists of a hierarchical structure in which the most inclusive ideas occupy a position at the apex of the structure and subsume progressively less inclusive and more highly differentiated propositions, concepts and factual data.[7]

For this assignment it is difficult to do more than illustrate simply in a variety of contexts some kinds of progressive differentiations that derive from the organizer stated Tala, for example, poverty as a tracer element in the historical and institutional development of social welfare.

A. There are four basic attitudes toward poverty, all of which are present in society today, each of which developed in a different historical period, and each of which suggests the treatment of the poor:

1. Blessed are the poor.
2. Poverty is a personal sin and moral flaw.
3. Poverty is a social evil to be alleviated.
4. Poverty is a social evil to be eliminated.

One can look at each of these values in relation to the impact on society; the impact on an individual and on the family; the nature, auspices, administration, and financing of services; the development of social work as a profession, with the ethics, methods, and skills that evolved within it; the implications for child-rearing practices; the birth and development of the social sciences; the views of man these reflect; the process of social change; the resistance to change; and the development of scientific, medical, and technological knowledge. (This is a suggestive list, not an inclusive or definitive one.)

B. The definitions of poverty developed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Social Security Administration involve the setting of a poverty line based on the incorporation of facts about age of family members, size of family, geographic location, rural or urban location, and income of family.

C. Poverty from the perception of the poor:

1. When most people are poor.
2. When most people are relatively affluent.
3. When one is black, Puerto Rican, Chicano, or American Indian.

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[7] Ausubel, Op. cit.

D. Poverty as the absence of money, choice, and privacy:

1. Money can buy adequate food, clothing, shelter, medical care, and education; lack of money severely limits all of these choices.

2. Money can buy justice—adequate legal protection, better treatment, and less punitive sentences.

3. Money places a value on time and privacy; e.g., appointment with a private physician versus time spent waiting—perhaps all day—at a public clinic.

4. Money can buy morality—divorce instead of abandonment and safe legal abortion, privacy for an unwed mother.

All of these differentiations can be refined, detailed, narrowed, and increased in depth; they have application for and may be connected to every content area; they can serve to link values with knowledge; most important, they are likely to achieve both cognitive and affective learning.[8]

Integrative Reconciliation

Ausubel labels the third step in his structure *integrative reconciliation:*

> . . . Serious effort must be made to explore relationships between . . . ideas, to point out significant similarities and differences, and to reconcile real or apparent differences. . . . Organizers may also be expressly designed to further the principle of integrative reconciliation.[9]

With the four attitudes toward poverty listed earlier curriculum can be structured to explore relationships between what the U.S.A. in 1970 professes about poverty and what it does about it. In the study of social policy and the priorities among the goals of social policy, curriculum can be structured to examine relationships between law and order and serious cleavages in society, from St. Augustine to Richard Nixon; those relationships among law and order, Black Power, and freedom and justice; those between the Black Panther breakfasts for children and the socialization of the young.

Sequential Organization

The fourth component of Ausubel's structure is *sequential organization:*

> The availability of relevant anchoring ideas for use in meaningful verbal learning and retention may obviously be maximized by taking advantage of natural sequential dependencies among the component divisions of a discipline, i.e., of the fact that the understanding of a given topic often logically presupposes the prior understandings of some related type . . . by arranging the order of topic . . . as far as possible in accordance with these sequential dependencies, the learning of each unit, in turn, not only becomes an achievement in its own right but also constitutes specifically relevant ideational scaffolding for the next item in the sequence.[10]

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[8] Ibid., p. 36–38.

[9] Ibid.,

[10] Ibid., p. 39

A good illustration of this notion may be found in the principle of programmed instruction. One does not learn a program at a higher or lower level. Rather, one stays with a specific idea until it is thoroughly learned.

Such structuring of content assumes that there is a sequential order, a learning hierarchy in the subject content. This suggests that a separate organizer needs to be provided for each unit of material. Romanyshyn's selection of basic concepts for teaching social welfare as a social institution provides organizers for units of content. Concept 1 reads: "Understanding Social Welfare as the Primary Institutional Context of Social Work." [11] Perhaps a larger organizer might be postulated: The evolution of social welfare reflects a value about the worth and dignity of man and an understanding of the interdependence and the uniqueness of man. A suborganizer states: Social work is a profession that evolved from the contributed to the institution of social welfare.

The sequential organization of these concepts will depend partly on whether this is the first course in undergraduate social welfare, partly on the courses in related disciplines that are prerequisites for this course, partly on whether the student is a freshman or a junior, and partly on a study of the logical analysis of the content. If this course has been preceded by a course about man in his environment or one on social problems, connection will need to be made with the prior organizers.

The fact that schools have different sequences and different prerequisites makes it all the more necessary to enunciate principles of curriculum construction that facilitate cognitive and affective learning. Each school will have to order and reorder any national curriculum content recommendations, and each teacher who uses a curriculum guide will have to repeat the process. But this is easier than for each potential user of the curriculum to create all of his own organizers.

The development of the basic organizers of the subject assures that all students, regardless of their own differences and the differences of their educational institutions, will be exposed to the essence of the discipline. In that sense the education of students may be said to be standardized. At the same time the principles of curriculum construction can free each user of the curriculum guide to build from his own expertise, to choose from a variety of sub units that illustrate the organizer and generate new units, and to involve the students in these processes.

Consolidation

The final component of Ausubel's structure is *consolidation:*

> By insisting on consolidation or mastery of ongoing lessons before new material is introduced, we make sure of continued subject-matter readiness and success in sequentially organized learning. . . . This principle also applies to those kinds of intra-task learning in which each component task, as well as entire bodies of subject matter, tends to be compound in content and to manifest an internal organization of its own. Consolidation, of course, is achieved through confirma-

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[11] John M. Romanyshyn, "Social Welfare as a Social Institution," Appendix B, this volume, p. 270.

> tion, correction, clarification, differential practice, and, in the course of repeated exposure to learning material, review with feedback.[12]

Consolidation should result in overlearning and should throughout the curriculum in part be a result of the use of organizers introduced and reintroduced with a different focus and in increasing scope and depth. Thus a value (man has dignity and worth), an idea (man is a biological-psychological social person), and some models that illustrate this (Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Erikson's Eight Stages of Man, and Havighurst's Developmental Tasks), can be introduced in psychosociological foundations of behavior content, reintroduced in social welfare as social institution content, and reinforced in both social work and interventive methods content. Affective content can move from values to knowledge to research and evaluation and finally to new values and actions.

OBJECTIVES IN AFFECTIVE LEARNING

Rogers so effectively organized some of the more general goals in affective learning that they deserve to be quoted:

> The goal . . . is to assist students to become individuals: who are able to take self-initiated action and to be responsible for those actions: who are capable of intelligent choice and self-direction; who are critical learners, able to evaluate the contributions made by others; who have acquired knowledge relevant to the solution of problems; who, even more importantly, are able to adapt flexibly and intelligently to new problem situations; who have internalized an adaptive mode of approach to problems, utilizing all pertinent experience freely and creatively; who are able to cooperate effectively with others in these various activities; who work, not for approval of others, but in terms of their own socialized purposes.[13]

Another category of objectives may be illustrated by some examples:

1. Learning for social interaction, to express feelings about others, to perceive how others view oneself, to be aware of feelings about self.
2. Understanding the other, stepping into the role of the other to see his world (identification, sympathy, empathy).
3. Being effective in interpersonal relations.
4. Understanding the personal and societal consequences of social problems.
5. Developing skills in helping relationships.

These middle-range objectives can be further specified and limited for specific units of content in the various subject areas. The objectives listed, while appropriate in any class, suggest skills like role-playing, interviewing, analysis of small group behavior, and interventive methods. They obviously have relevance to extra-classroom activities.

Figure 4 attempts to illustrate objectives in the affective taxonomy, using Romanyshyn's content on income strategy and poverty. By extending the chart to include parallel columns for teaching methods and techniques, learning activities field experiences, resources, and evaluative tools, one could map out a specific unit, a single session, or a course.

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[12] Ausubel, Op. cit., p. 40.

[13] Carl Rogers, "Learning to be Free," in Glen Hass, Kimball Wiles, and Joseph Bondi, *Readings in Curriculum*, 2d ed.; Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1970), p. 230.

A caveat is in order here. No one class or course is likely to accomplish the highest categories in the affective taxonomy. One may expect to achieve results in Categories 1 and 2; one may hope to reach many students at the level of 3.1. Success in Categories 3.2 to 5.2 may occur for some students as a result of exposure to a 4-year program. For others the highest levels may not be achievable until later in life. Some may never reach 5.2.

Thus far there has been an attempt to elucidate the structuring of curriculum to facilitate affective learning. This is the first step, the preplanned and prestructured curriculum. Its importance derives from (1) beginning with the logical ordering of subject content, (2) proceeding to a restructuring of that content to evoke affective response from a specific set of learners, (3) enabling the development of evaluative measures, (4) providing, hopefully, a sense of security for both teacher and learner, (5) encouraging integration of cognition and affect, and (6) furnishing an overview of content that permits the teacher to grasp the whole before teaching any part of it.

Yet to stop with this is almost to deny the essence of affective learning. Bettelheim's felicitious phrase, "The Informed Heart", captures the essence of vital education. When knowing and feeling come together, there is a visceral, response that is powerfully significant to the learner, a response catalytic in nature and rewarding in effect. The planned part of curriculum, in the field and in the rest of the student's real world, furnishes infinite opportunities to spark the affective response and to encourage the joyful moment of insight. The student who knows the definitions and dimensions of poverty through his intellect may come closer to the essence of poverty when he has smelled it and when he has seen its effects on a child.

The freedom to choose—and the sometimes awful burden such freedom creates is viewed one way from an abstract, theoretical, albeit lively and relevant, presentation in class. Yet what a different dimension in affect may be experienced as the result of a happenstance. A teacher once received a moving appeal from a student who had gone to the South to work in the freedom movement, and read the letter to the class that day, partly because it reflected social work values at their best, but also because the student happened to write the teacher that week. The class was quite moved by the appeal, and from that happenstance a successful student campaign was waged on behalf of the people for whom the writer spoke. But also as the result of that letter, a young man wrote in his log: "I am in deep turnmoil. In my heart I know that everything that letter stated is right and necessary. Yet were I to do that work, I would lose the love of everyone around me." With some help from the teacher, he spent the rest of the year struggling to take less risky actions. As he discovered the power within him, he began to reject some of his racial attitudes. He found new and more satisfying relationships, and out of the anguish of his own choice internalized a philosophy of life and code of conduct that more truly reflected the informed heart.

The example is cited because it goes beyond any behavioral course objectives and it defies any behavioral evaluation devices. It cannot be planned. It cannot be replicated. Indeed, often one does not even know the final result of many changes that begin in the class or in the field. Yet who would deny the affective learning that took place?

Sometimes teachers forget that their own creative teaching in the classroom rests on sound theoretical ideas that are related or analagous to creative methods in working with clients. Students attending their first class after field placement need to talk about their experiences. With guidance from a teacher who knows the whole curriculum, what rich and significant-learning may occur in a half hour. A question like, "How did you prepare for your first agency interview?" will elicit a variety of responses that in a few moments can reinforce earlier learning in human development. This might lead to what the supervisors did (and sometimes did not do) to reduce the threat, to enable the student both to feel some control in the new situation, and to identify with the agency as *his* agency. Teacher questions: "Do you see any connections between your experiences and feelings and those a client might have in coming to the agency?" From the responses a series of ratios might be hypothesized (i.e., the greater the risk, the more intense the response might be) that may be tested, corrected or rejected throughout the year. Given a facilitative curriculum structure, the teacher who begins to reach out for integrative and reinforcing threads will be bombarded with connections and new ways to teach. Teachers who know the whole can be more flexible in teaching the parts and be freer to listen to what students are really saying, thinking, and feeling. For the learner such teachers are models for professional identification.

One can list goals of social policy and discuss different priorities that different groups might have.[14] A more visceral or sharper grasp of the ordering of values may be elicited from a relevant yet outrageous question: A group of militant "sisters" sought support from the Women's Liberation Movement in achieving the right for women to fight in Vietnam. But no creative teaching method or technique can be worth more than the knowledge foundation from which it flows.

The frequency with which the question of relating class to field is posed gives pause for thought, if not cause for concern. Carefully thought through objectives and an appropriately structured curriculum provide the base, purpose, and justification for the field experience.[15] The teacher who has a thorough grasp of his subject will find the problem quite different: How does one manage all of the connections that bombard him?

The notion of "aggregate and disaggregate" is a useful tool in affective learning. Attention to the meaning of poverty both to the aggregate

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[14] William E. Gordon, *"Social Work Values & Knowledge,"* Report to NASW Commission on Practices for the second Subcommittee on the Working Definition of Practice, March 1963.

[15] David Krathwohl, Benjamin S. Bloom, and Bertram B. Masia, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.* Handbook II: Affective Domain, New York: David McKay Co., 1964.

—society and to the disaggregate—the individual or family—has already been discussed. Students, in their study of the history of social work, will often read or state that 10 million immigrants entered the country during a given period, without any sense at all of the meaning of this either to a country unprepared for the mass of immigrants or to a person who comes with hopes and fears to a strange new world. Yet many students heard grandparents relate their adventures and misadventures. It is easy to move from the aggregate—when students puzzle out *why* almshouses along the coast became general hospitals—to what happened to their grandparents. Just tracing the geographic movement from a ghetto tenement to a home in the suburbs enables students to understand better why the recent escapee from the ghetto wants to exclude the present ghetto resident from suburbia. And in the simple question, "Why is it important to understand the fears of the recently arrived suburbanite?" a whole new set of understandings become possible. In the aggregate-disaggregate idea one can connect the basic subject areas, reinforce previous learning, and plant the seeds for future content while still focusing on the major purpose of the class session.

Faculty members engaged in action, whether legisaltive change or work in the community or on campus provide models. Students are more likely to move from the response to the commitment level provided a variety of interests are encouraged and joint faculty-student action is possible. Agency supervisors involved in action are equally significant models. Students—in their own organization, in specific task forces such as a student advising corps, or in an ad hoc group that paints a room in a community building or goes on a weekend workshop—may encourage the less active to risk involvement, and tend to attract people of like interest to a program.

SUMMARY

Only some aspects of this enormous subject, affective learning, have been touched on, and the writer feels humble about both the selection and the equally important omissions.

"True" or significant learning occurs when cognitive and affective content are parallel and interdependent, permitting the learner to reorder what he already knows in such a way that new learning is facilitated. Learning in this sense leads to broader understanding of the world and a more flexible and enlightened capacity not only to cope with it but also to create a better one.

Affective learning runs the gamut from studying values, beliefs, and attitudes to developing self-awareness and internalizing a philosophical base and code of conduct in both personal and professional life.

The proposition that there is a logical and psychological structure to the curriculum that facilitates affective learning and meets the criteria of continuity, sequence, integration, and development is explored. The ordering of cognitive ideas using the Ausubel framework of organizers, encompassing progressive differentiation, integrative reconciliation, sequential organization, and consolidation, can accomplish several purposes. First, the identification of organizers potentially leads to the standardization of curriculum without doing violence either to teachers' differing skills and competence or to the learners' diverse experiential backgrounds and readiness. Second, such structuring of the subject content permits the development of a wide variety of courses appropriate for a wide variety of educational institutions. Third, such an arrangement permits sufficient flexibility and freedom to generate new curriculum and to feedback new insights and larger configurations.

Only the more general affective objectives have been explicated and illustrated here. The structure developed allows both cognitive and affective objectives to be specific for one purpose, middle range for another, and global for still another.

Through the structured and preplanned curriculum, based on sound knowledge of the subject content, some behaviorally stated objectives, activities, and evaluation provide a possible and necessary foundation. But beyond that there are affective learnings that can neither be behaviorally defined nor behaviorally measured. There are the exciting personal insights, the giant leaps, the heightened self-awareness that learners experience that are beyond any one class or course. They are hoped-for outcomes, the person in process, the ripples whose ultimate effect may never be known.

No more than brief mention was made of affective learning that results from creative teaching, from field experience that is carefully planned and evolves from sound objectives, the importance of knowing the whole sequence, the value of relating major ideas to the individual and to the larger society, the faculty and supervisors as models for action, and the contribution of student activities.

PROPOSAL

Happily, the Council on Social Work Education has encouraged both the development and the circulation of syllabi written for a variety of courses in diverse educational institutions. New ones appear frequently. A study of these syllabi done by a national task force with expertise in all the subject areas should reveal some major concepts presently being taught in enough schools to reflect important notions in undergraduate social work education. Once these concepts are organized and identified, their relevance to the broad subject areas can be explored. The results of the task force work should be sent to a representative sample of educational institutions for review, criticism, and comments by faculty and students. From this a useful curriculum resource could evolve.

If one dreams, one may as well dream big. The next step is the creation of a second task force whose expertise is in teaching methods, techniques, and resources and whose task is to develop a wide variety of illustrative methods and techniques for each of the major concepts. It is assumed that most of these concepts will have relevance in several or all of the broad areas—i.e., human growth and development, social policy, social welfare, social work, and interventive methods. This also should be tested as indicated.

The work of the first task force would be a giant step forward in legitimately standardizing the undergraduate curriculum. The second task force should greatly facilitate the induction and training of teachers at the local level.

It is further recommended that such a project be sponsored by CSWE and NASW, both because of their national overview and because representatives from both education and practice must participate. An advisory board with representatives from all levels of education, practice, civil service and the consumers—the undergraduate and community college students—should be established early so that all involved in the changes will contribute to the process.

AUSUBEL'S FRAMEWORK

Source: David P. Ausubel, "Some Psychological Aspects of Curriculum Theory," Samplings, Vol. 1, No. 3 (April 1968), Future Schools Study Project, Albuquerque Public Schools, Albuquerque, N.M.

1. The nature of meaning—meaningful learning involves acquisition of new meanings are products of meaningful learning.
2. Conditions of meaningfully learning symbolically expressed ideas are related in nonarbitrary and substantive (verbatim) fashion to what the learner already knows.
3. Types of meaningful learning:
   a. Representational—single symbols.
   b. Propositional—ideas expressed in combination that lead to new ideas.
   c. Conceptual unitary generic or categorical ideas that develop criterial attributes (distinguishing or identifying).
4. Logical and psychological meaning:
   a. Logical—potential meaning is inherent in certain expressions and propositions; it depends only on the "nature of the material."
   b. Psychological—*actual* (phenomenological) meaning, the product of a meaningful learning process, is a wholly idiosyncratic cognitive experience.
5. Propositional learning:
   a. Cognitive structure tends to be hierarchically organized with regard to the level of abstraction, generality, and inclusiveness.
   b. New propositional meanings most typically reflect a subordinate relationship of new learning material to cognitive structure. Potentially meaningful proposition are subsumed under more inclusive and general ideas (analysis, differentiation).
   c. Derivative subsumption—supports or derives from an already established, more inclusive cognitive proposition.
   d. Correlative subsumption—extension, elaboration, modification, or qualification of a previously learned proposition.
   e. Superordinate relationship—an inclusive new proposition under which several established ideas are subsumed. (Integrative reconciliation of synthesis of several apparently conflicting propositions,) generalization, synthesis.
   f. Combinatorial meanings—new generalizations, not relatable to specific relevant ideas, relationships between mass and energy, demand and price.
6. Cognitive structure variables (cognitive structure is a clear, stable, organized body of knowledge).
   a. Availability in cognitive structure of specifically relevant anchoring ideas.
   b. The extent to which the learning task is discriminable from established ideational systems.
   c. The stability and clarity of anchoring ideas.
7. Use of organizers—introductory materials at a high level of generality and inclusiveness.
   a. Explain, integrate, and interrelate materials they precede.
   b. Bridge the gap between what the learner already knows and what he needs to know to learn the task at hand.
   c. Provide ideational scaffolding for more differentiated and detailed material.

Cognitive Domain, Objectives, Condensed

Objectives deal with remembering and relating, recall or recognition of knowledge, development of intellectual abilities and skills.

Knowledge: recall of specifics and universals; methods and processes; pattern, structure, or setting.

Knowledge of

1. **Specifics**: symbols (concrete referents), elements (low level of abstraction)

2. **Terminology**: symbols (verbal and nonverbal); definitions (attributes, properties, relations; large number of words with a common range of meanings).

3. **Specific facts**: dates, events, persons, places.

4. **Ways and means of dealing with specifics:**

a. Organizing, studying, judging, criticizing
b. Methods of inquiry
c. Chronological sequences
d. Standards of judgment
e. Patterns of organization

5. **Conventions**: characteristic ways of treating ideas and phenomena, usages, styles, forms of communication.

6. Trends and sequences: processes, directions, movements of phenomena with respect to time.

7. **Classifications and categories**: classes, sets, divisions that are fundamental in subject, purpose, argument, or problem.

8. **Criteria**: means by which facts, principles, opinions, and conduct are tested or judged.

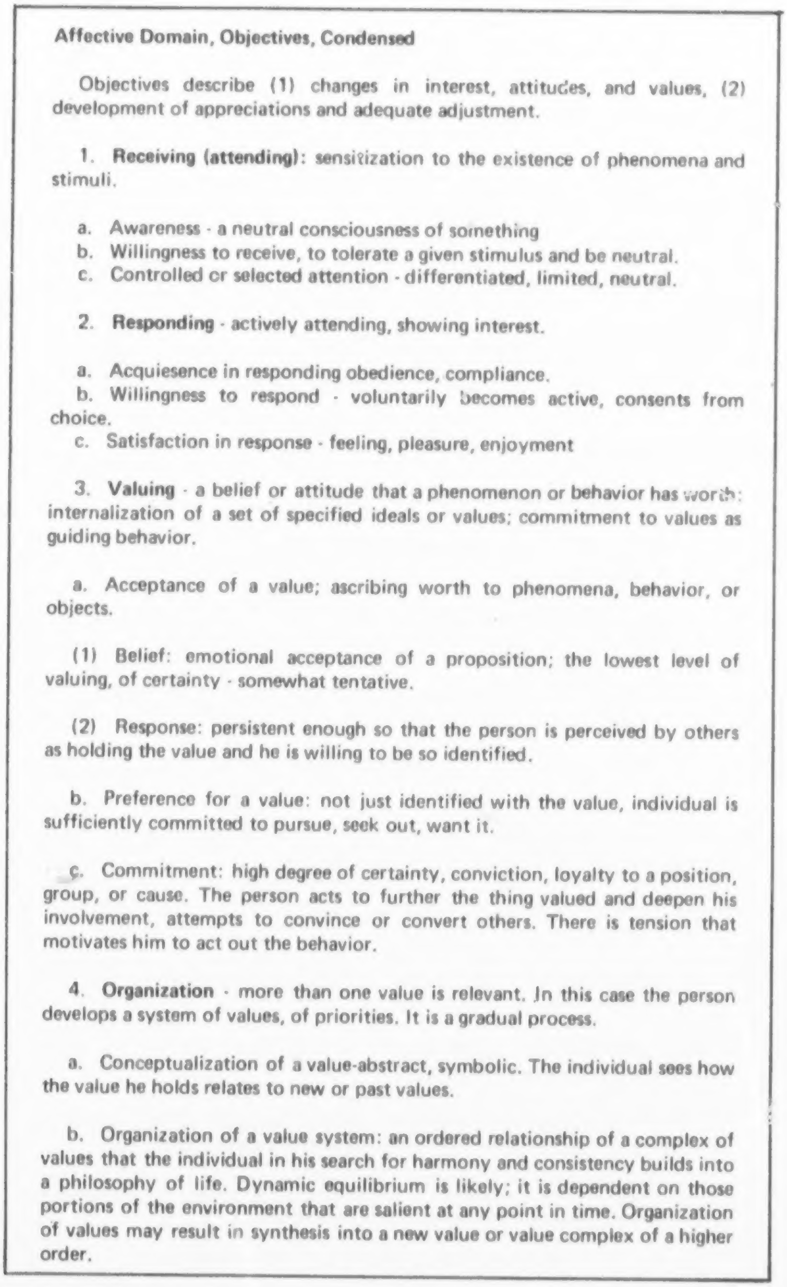
9. **Methodology**: methods of inquiry, techniques, procedures – knowledge of rather than use of.

10. **Universals and abstractions in a field**: major schemes by which phenomena and ideas are organized.

11. **Principles and generalizations**: specific abstractions that summarize observations of phenomena; useful in explaining, describing, predicting.

12. **Theories and structure**: a body of principles and generalizations, interrelations, systematic view of complex phenomena.

Figure 1.



Affective Domain, Objectives, Condensed

Objectives describe (1) changes in interest, attitudes, and values, (2) development of appreciations and adequate adjustment.

1. **Receiving (attending):** sensitization to the existence of phenomena and stimuli.

a. Awareness - a neutral consciousness of something
b. Willingness to receive, to tolerate a given stimulus and be neutral.
c. Controlled or selected attention - differentiated, limited, neutral.

2. **Responding** - actively attending, showing interest.

a. Acquiesence in responding obedience, compliance.
b. Willingness to respond - voluntarily becomes active, consents from choice.
c. Satisfaction in response - feeling, pleasure, enjoyment

3. **Valuing** - a belief or attitude that a phenomenon or behavior has worth; internalization of a set of specified ideals or values; commitment to values as guiding behavior.

a. Acceptance of a value; ascribing worth to phenomena, behavior, or objects.

(1) Belief: emotional acceptance of a proposition; the lowest level of valuing, of certainty - somewhat tentative.

(2) Response: persistent enough so that the person is perceived by others as holding the value and he is willing to be so identified.

b. Preference for a value: not just identified with the value, individual is sufficiently committed to pursue, seek out, want it.

c. Commitment: high degree of certainty, conviction, loyalty to a position, group, or cause. The person acts to further the thing valued and deepen his involvement, attempts to convince or convert others. There is tension that motivates him to act out the behavior.

4. **Organization** - more than one value is relevant. In this case the person develops a system of values, of priorities. It is a gradual process.

a. Conceptualization of a value-abstract, symbolic. The individual sees how the value he holds relates to new or past values.

b. Organization of a value system: an ordered relationship of a complex of values that the individual in his search for harmony and consistency builds into a philosophy of life. Dynamic equilibrium is likely; it is dependent on those portions of the environment that are salient at any point in time. Organization of values may result in synthesis into a new value or value complex of a higher order.

Figure 2.

5. **Characterization by a value or value complex** - The following has already taken place; Values are organized into an internally consistent system, have controlled behavior long enough so that individual behaves accordingly; his behavior is not emotionally charged except when he is threatened or challenged.

a. Generalized set: the person is described and characterized by these values; he has a generalized response to generalized phenomena

(1) Selective response at a very high level.

(2) Considered as the determining tendency, a predisposition to act a certain way.

(3) Persistent and consistent response to a family of related situations or objects.

(4) Basic orientation that enables the individual to reduce and order the complex world about him and act consistently and effectively in it.

b. Characterization: peak of the internalization process.

(1) One's view of the universe, philosophy of life.

(2) More than generalized sets, this involves the following:

(a) Greater inclusiveness.

(b) Emphasis on internal consistency.

(c) Tendency to characterize the individual almost completely.

Figure 2.—Continued

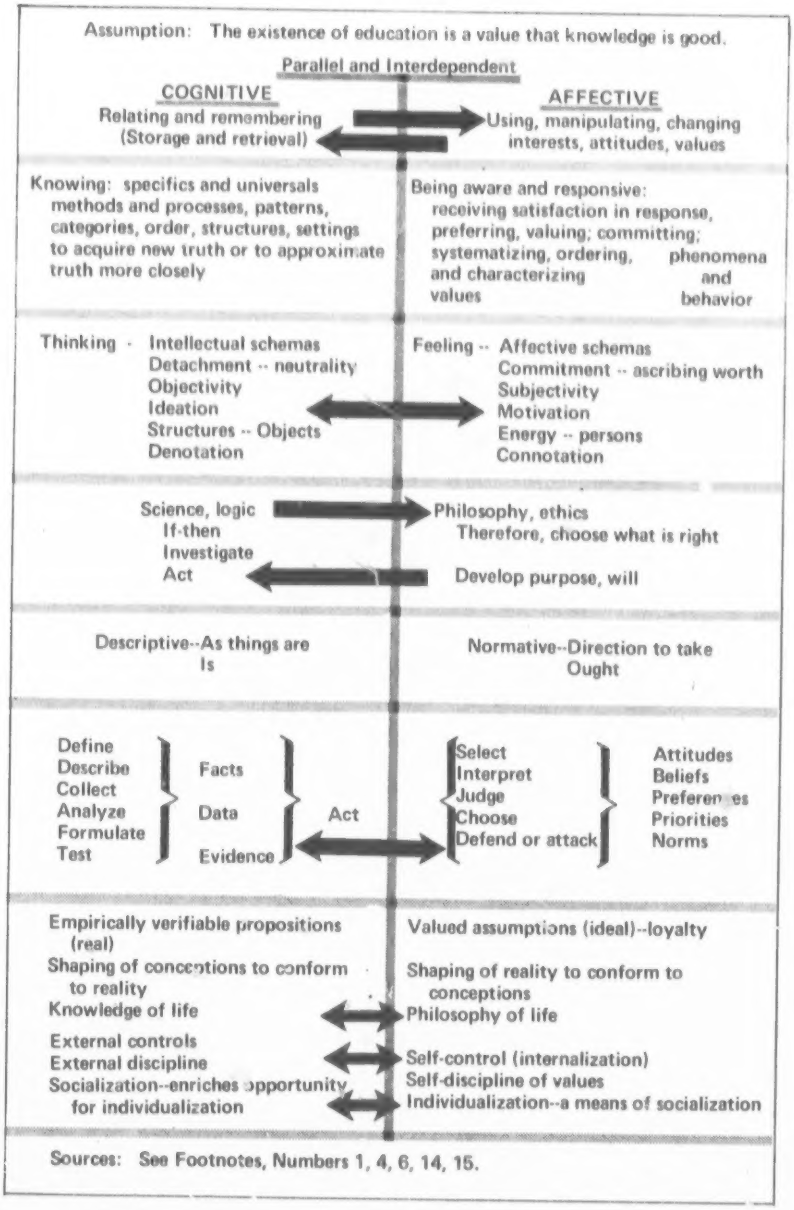

Assumption: The existence of education is a value that knowledge is good.
Parallel and Interdependent
COGNITIVE
AFFECTIVE
Relating and remembering
(Storage and retrieval)
Using, manipulating, changing interests, attitudes, values
Knowing: specifics and universals methods and processes, patterns, categories, order, structures, settings to acquire new truth or to approximate truth more closely
Being aware and responsive: receiving satisfaction in response, preferring, valuing; committing; systematizing, ordering, and characterizing values
phenomena and behavior
Thinking - Intellectual schemas
Detachment -- neutrality
Objectivity
Ideation
Structures -- Objects
Denotation
Feeling -- Affective schemas
Commitment -- ascribing worth
Subjectivity
Motivation
Energy -- persons
Connotation
Science, logic
If-then
Investigate
Act
Philosophy, ethics
Therefore, choose what is right
Develop purpose, will
Descriptive--As things are
Is
Normative--Direction to take
Ought
Define
Describe
Collect
Analyze
Formulate
Test
Facts
Data
Evidence
Act
Select
Interpret
Judge
Choose
Defend or attack
Attitudes
Beliefs
Preferences
Priorities
Norms
Empirically verifiable propositions (real)
Shaping of conceptions to conform to reality
Knowledge of life
External controls
External discipline
Socialization--enriches opportunity for individualization
Valued assumptions (ideal)--loyalty
Shaping of reality to conform to conceptions
Philosophy of life
Self-control (internalization)
Self-discipline of values
Individualization--a means of socialization
Sources: See Footnotes, Numbers 1, 4, 6, 14, 15.

Figure 3. The Realm of Affective Content

1.0 to 1.3 Receiving	Awareness of issue, acceptance of issue, sensitive to stories about poverty
2.0 to 2.3 Responding	Willing to read about poverty, learn voluntarily some of the issues, enjoy arguing issues; differentiates categories of poor, attitudes toward poverty
3.0 to 3.3 Valuing	Redefines poverty as problems to be dealt with or eliminated
3.1 Acceptance of value	Identifies with problems of poor, feels inequities, injustice, understands price paid by individuals and by society
3.2 Preference for value	Clarifies (or changes) own attitudes toward poor, defends poor, sheds stereotypes.
3.3 Commitment	Takes some action against poverty, becomes involved in ongoing activities.
4.0 4.1 Conceptualization of value system	Analyzes poverty in economic, social, political, physical, and psychological terms. Synthesizes values.
4.2 Organization of value system	Relates knowledge of poverty to goals of social policy; orders goals, develops priorities and strategies for action
5.0 Characterization by a value complex	Views many issues--i.e., discrimination in race, sex, age--in context of poverty, acts on views in professional life
5.1 Generalized set	
5.2 Characterization	Develops both professional and personal philosophy of life and code of conduct that guide actions against poverty, acts consistently with beliefs.

Figure 4. Categories

It is necessary to identify organizers for formidable and long-range problems and to construct a curriculum that reflects basic or underlying principles of the field of inquiry.

8. Programing content:
   a. Progressive differentiation—detail and specificity, an hierarchical series of organizers in descending order of inclusiveness.
   b. Integrative reconciliation—similarities and differences in related ideas reconcile real or apparent inconsistencies. Materials are presented along parallel lines, with related materials in serial fashion (analogy).
   c. Sequential organization—learning each unit is an achievement in itself, provides scaffolding for the next item in the sequence (programed instruction).
   d. Consolidation—confirmation, correction, clarification, differential practice, review with feedback. Overlearning is essential. An adequate number of adequately spaced repetitions and reviews, repetition of the same task before the new task is introduced.

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APPENDIX H

THE PLACE OF THE UNDERGRADUATE CURRICULUM IN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

Herbert Bisno

A PROBLEM AND A STRUCTURAL-FUNCTIONAL MODEL

In an effort to help students overcome the difficulty of effectively relating content from courses in basic disciplines to undergraduate and graduate social work courses, a structural-functional model for the organizational relationship between basic knowledge areas and social work content areas was constructed. Resources for this model came from educators, course materials, relevant literature, studies of other professions, and personal experience.

Underlying Propositions

This structural-functional model was based on the following propositions:

1. *The fundamental content in each relevant basic discipline should be learned within its own frame of reference.*

There are two important facets of this proposition: (a) Since the various disciplines have their own frames of reference it is important, for the student's own understanding, to be able to fit content from any discipline into its appropriate frame of reference, especially if he wishes to take advanced courses in these disciplines. (b) Attempts to integrate content from the different relevant disciplines around a specific professional focus (in this case social work) before the student has had at least the fundamentals in these areas leads to superficiality and extremely inefficient teaching and learning. This suggests that it would usually be unwise to rely on specially adapted courses in the basic disciplines that are strongly oriented toward social work for introduction of the fundamental content from a basic discipline, and that would be equally undesirable to introduce the student to the fundamental content of the basic disciplines for the first time in social work content courses. The latter situation is not uncommon in social work at present.

2. *"Spiraling repetition" is desirable and should be distinguished from unprofitable duplication.*

Planned repetition at a "deeper" level, or emphasizing a new set of relationships, is a requirement for effective learning. It is certainly essential if continuity and sequence are to be achieved. Concretely this means that the use of content from the basic disciplines in social work content courses would be desirable after at least the fundamentals have been acquired by study in those disciplines. It might be added parenthetically that without such use the content learned in the basic disciplines is likely to become intellectually inoperative if not completely forgotten. To a considerable extent this is what happens at present.

3. *Content from the basic disciplines should be integrated and used within a social work framework at a point in time when it is still relatively fresh in the student's mind.*

The implication of this proposition is clear. It is highly unrealistic to expect effective use of content from the basic disciplines in social work content courses after a lapse of several years if there has been no reinforcement during the intervening period. However, this is precisely what frequently occurs in present programs.

4. *There is at present no general analytic frame of reference that adequately unifies the institutional, small group, and individual levels of analysis.*

Basic to understanding why there is as yet no unified theory of man and society, not even an integrated "science of social man," is recognition of the fact that different levels of analysis do exist; for example, principles explaining the behavior of the individual organism do not provide an adequate explanation of human collectivities. Similarly, theoretical formulations dealing with the nature of small groups may not prove explanatory at the societal level. Furthermore, even at the same level of analysis one often looks in vain for a common framework of understanding.

A considerable amount of attention and effort is currently being directed toward the establishment of a unified theory of behavior (e.g., general systems theory). Constructs such as social role are also proving useful in interrelating certain aspects of the different analytical levels. Nevertheless no satisfying comprehensive theory has yet emerged and, in the writer's judgment, none is in the immediate offing. It would appear that prior steps must be taken before there is much likelihood of an adequate unified framework being developed. The following statement by Newcomb is much to the point:

> The present requirement for a unified science of man is not fusion of the different levels of inquiry, but recognition and understanding of what is identical and what is distinctive. From such recognition and understanding theoretical integration may yet emerge.[1]

5. *The expectation that the student can effectively make the abrupt shift from learning content in the basic disciplines within their own frames of reference to the creative use of such content in practice-focused social work courses is probably unrealistic.*

There has been much recognition of the technical difficulties of translating content from the basic disciplines to make it meaningful and useful within a social work framework. Strangely enough, though, there has not been much systematic discussion of the structural preconditions within a total educational program for achieving such translation and integration (nor what is really meant by integration).

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[1] Theodore M. Newcomb, "Sociology and Psychology," in John Gillin, ed., *For a Science of Social Man* (New York: Macmillan Co. 1954), p. 256.

Let us look at a situation facing the social work student in many schools. The intellectual gymnastics required of him by the commonly existing organizational patterns are indeed formidable. Note the following facts:

a. In a number of professions there are intermediate courses that "mediate" between the basic disciplines and the practice-focused courses. For example, in medical schools a distinction is made between the *basic sciences* and the *medical basic sciences.*

> Departments of a medical school . . . fall into two general categories—medical basic science (or preclinical) departments and clinical departments. . . . The medical basic science departments are generally the departments of anatomy, biochemistry, physiology, pharmacology, bacteriology (microbiology), and pathology.
>
> These departments, although frequently known as basic science departments, *do not cover the fields of the truly basic sciences,* but have as their roots the basic sciences of biology, chemistry, physics, and mathematics. *They really represent those portions of the true basic sciences from which have developed certain organized bodies of knowledge of definite value to medicine, and they might be called "medical science departments."*[2] (Italics added.)

These medical science courses, as well as their functional equivalents in other professions, serve as intermediate courses in several respects. First, they are inbetween from the point of view of the stage (located in time) of the educational program in which they occur. Second, they mediate between the basic sciences and practice-focused courses (referred to in medicine as clinical courses) in the sense of bringing basic science content into a new synthesis that provides a usable knowledge base for practice. Third, they bring together content from more than one discipline and incorporate it within the synthesizing medical science course. This appears to be a crucial aspect of their mediating function. In other words, they provide a transitional step both in terms of sequence and integration.

b. In examining the structure of a typical program of social work education, one finds there are few, if any transitional basic knowledge courses that serve the function of integrative mediators. This brings out a problem that is more acute in social work than in a profession such as medicine. The basic medical sciences bring together and synthesize content from various disciplines, but these disciplines are usually within the same level of analysis (at least in terms of the levels that have been specified). However, in social work two mediating steps have to be taken. First, content from the different disciplines *within* a level of analysis (e.g., anthropology, economics, political science, sociology, and so on) has to be integrated within a social work framework. Second, this same process of bringing content together into a new configuration has to occur with respect to the content from the different levels of analysis (e.g., sociology and physiology). There is serious question as to whether both of these integrating functions can effectively be accomplished in one stage.

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[2] John E. Deitrick and Robert C. Benson, *Medical Schools in the United States at Mid-Century* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1953), pp. 157–157.

It is apparent that the present "typical" patterning of the social work student's learning experience from the undergraduate through the graduate phases makes little provision for the transitional steps in integrating and synthesizing content from the basic disciplines within a social work frame of reference. Thus a severe and probably unrealistically heavy burden is imposed on the student.

This problem has not gone unrecognized. Various approaches designed to compensate for an inadequate grounding in the basic sciences and for the lack of intermediate knowledge courses have been tried. One such approach is teaching courses in "social process" or "socio cultural understandings" within graduate schools of social work. Another development is the seminar or course at the undergraduate level that seeks to achieve integration of the various content from the basic sciences within a social work framework. However, most of these attempts, while clearly recognizing the crucial problem, are not yet structurally patterned over a number of years in such a way as to be consistent with all the propositions underlying the model presented here.[3] For example, courses at the graduate level that are designed to perform this integrative function usually meet neither the requirement of sequence nor the problem of too much lapsed time. Further, these courses usually emphasize integration of content from disciplines within only one (or at the most, two) level of analysis.

In conclusion, it ought to be noted that the most usual types of undergraduate social work courses (e.g., introduction to social work, social work methods, and so on) do not function as mediating basic knowledge courses, nor is such a claim ordinarily made for them.

The Structural-Functional Model

The structural-functional model itself is pictured in Figure 1. Layer 2 of this provides for three basic social work knowledge areas that are fundamenal to the methods and similarily practice-focused sequences. It assumes that each of these areas would integrate content from basic disciplines, within a given level of analysis. Area *D* would do this for those disciplines concerned with the study of larger collectiivties; Area *E* for those disciplines that treat groups and other forms of social interaction from a social psychological perspective (including both those that put more emphasis on the social and those that stress the psychological more); Area *F* for those disciplines that focus on the person, both as organism and as a participant in interaction.

It should be noted however, that each of these basic social work knowledge areas draws on each of the three basic knowledge areas, although with different degrees of emphasis. This is shown on the chart by the vertical and diagonal lines indicating degrees of relationship. The short horizontal lines connecting the three basic social work knowledge areas (*D, E,* and *F*) suggest that there would be interplay (e.g., cross reference) between them. Content from the humanities (e.g., philosophy, literature) and tool subjects (e.g., statistics, formal logic, communications) would cut through each of the areas. This is shown by the large curved lines. The humanities would assist in providing a philosophical perspective as well as an enriched understanding of human experiences; the tool subjects would provide, as the term suggests, the skill resources to perform certain necessary operations.

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[3] Although the problem has been recognized it usually has not been approached in terms of the present formulation.

Content Area G, on the third layer, would draw on the three basic social work knowledge areas (*D, E,* and *F*). It is thus synthesizes knowledge derived from three levels of analysis into a systematic examination of the totality of social work practice. The content in this area is also designed to provide a preparatory base for those students who would obtain employment in social work following completion of their undergraduate studies. This, then, represents a second stage in the transition from the basic knowledge areas to the specific study of the actual performance of social work.

Also implicit in the model is the interrelationship between the function of the parts and the purposes of the entire program that is depicted. In other words, while each area has its own function, all of the areas pictured are related to the goals of preparation for more advanced training on the graduate level and for employment in social work immediately atfer completing the undergraduate program. This means, of course, that the model is predicated on the assumption that these purposes can be realized with a single educational program. The crucial importance of this approach is that it permits those who may enter employment after obtaining the bachelor's degree to continue advanced training with a basis from their previous study. (Of course, some refresher work may be necessary.)

The model is not all inclusive since it does not include the specific work in the various basic disciplines that the students will be expected to take throughout the entire four years of undergraduate schooling.[4] Despite limitations it is believed that the structural-functional model presented here meets the requirements set for it. Its theoretical rationale is that the clarification of structure and function is a necessary condition for the determination of appropriate educational objectives.

A SECOND PROBLEM

The wages of problem-solving are more problems. The structural-functional model has left us with the academic version of the problem of "togetherness," how to achieve integration of content. The teaching and learning problems associated with the integration of content from different basic disciplines within the framework of a professionally oriented course or sequence of courses are difficult as well as numerous. There is a discouraging lack of evaluated data on which to base a judgment as to how best to accomplish such integration. However, it would appear that we can safely assume, as a starting point, the correctness of the following statement:

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[4] *General Education in Engineering: A Report of the Humanistic-Social Research Project,* p. 26.

> In talking about integration . . . we constantly ran into the argument that integration was all right but after all it must take place in the mind of the student. This is such an obvious platitude that we would not mention it if we did not believe that it is actually being used to the detriment of necessary developments in some programs in the humanities and social sciences. Of course integration must take place in the mind of the student if it is to be effective. So must all learning. . . . Integration must, nevertheless, be prepared for, and arrangements must be found which would encourage it to take place.
>
> *The mere placing of two related facts within the same consciousness does not, strangely enough, insure that that consciousness will in fact relate them.* (Italics added.)

Accepting as valid the principle that integration needs to be planned for and structured within the educational program, the question remains as to how this should be done. We might begin by surveying some of the possibilities. These include vertical integration, horizontal integration, integration of purpose, and interdisciplinary integration. The first refers to the "correlation of consecutive courses in such a way that one course builds on the facts, concepts, or methods developed in previous courses"; the second refers to the interrelation "of work in one course with the work in another course which is being taken concurrently with it"; the third refers to the "use of one course to accomplish several basic objectives"; and the fourth refers to the "drawing together into a single course or series of courses of the principles and data from several fields of knowledge." [5]

Structural provision has been made for the first three types of integration. The assumption of and necessity for the fourth type is also built into the model. However, there was no more than a hint as to how this might obtain. The problem involved is suggested by the meaning of the term *integrate* as being to bring parts together into a whole. The immediate question is how best to bring together content from the basic disciplines into a coherent whole within social work content courses. The means adopted is necessarily related to function and content.

Let us focus, then, on basic social work knowledge areas *D, E,* and *F:* that is, Layer 2 of the structural-functional model. At the present time perhaps the most usual type of systematic procedure used in integrating content from the institutional level (basic knowledge area *A*) into a social work framework is to introduce selected concepts from various disciplines, explore their dimensions, and show how they apply to social work. This is sometimes done by means of a specific course, although the instructors in the other social work content courses are also encouraged to use such concepts in their own teaching whenever feasible. It appears that such courses normally do not expect the student to enter with much usable content from the basic disciplines. In view of the present prevalent discontinuity between undergraduate and graduate education in social work, this is not an unreasonable expectation.

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[5] Ibid., pp. 22–23.

Despite its appreciable values, this approach strikes the writer as having two serious drawbacks. The first is that concepts and principles from the basic disciplines are likely to be perceived by the student as being rather discrete. Since they are not synthesized into a coherent whole, they tend to be described rather than utilized—with the latter occurring, when it does, mainly via illustrations. The concepts are also likely to be seen by the student as simply having application for social work, rather than becoming a part of the student's own social work perspective and intellectual framework.

Another way in which content from various disciplines may be integrated is by having representatives from a number of disciplines discuss their respective fields in terms of similarities, differences, and potential or actual applications to social work. Such multidisciplinary courses or seminars possess the advantage of having each of the disciplines represented by its own spokesman, thus reducing the likelihood of a distorted use of materials from these fields. The major weakness in this approach is that the student is even less likely than in the first instance to be able to incorporate the content within a coherent framework.

A third approach is to use the content (e.g., concepts, methods, principles) from the basic disciplines as part of the analysis that seeks to explain or illuminate some aspect of social work and its data.[6] Although this method is difficult, it appears to the writer to be the most promising from the point of view of developing a coherent conceptual framework that encompasses content from the basic disciplines. Hence this is the integrative procedure adopted in the formulation of objectives.

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[6] Some interesting attempts to relate several basic disciplines to each other in a manner somewhat like the third approach appear in Mirra Komarovsky, ed., *Common Frontiers of the Social Sciences* (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1957.

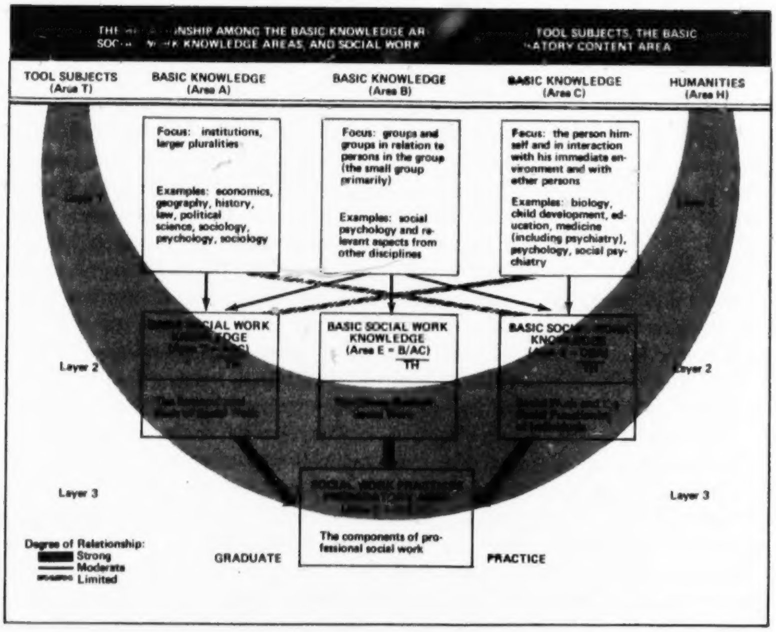

TOOL SUBJECTS, THE BASIC
KNOWLEDGE AREAS, AND SOCIAL WORK
TOOL SUBJECTS (Area T)
BASIC KNOWLEDGE (Area A)
BASIC KNOWLEDGE (Area B)
BASIC KNOWLEDGE (Area C)
HUMANITIES (Area H)
Focus: institutions, larger pluralities
Examples: economics, geography, history, law, political science, sociology, psychology, sociology
Focus: groups and groups in relation to persons in the group (the small group primarily)
Examples: social psychology and relevant aspects from other disciplines
Focus: the person himself and in interaction with his immediate environment and with other persons
Examples: biology, child development, education, medicine (including psychiatry), psychology, social psychiatry
BASIC SOCIAL WORK KNOWLEDGE (Area E = B/AC / TH)
Layer 2
Layer 2
Layer 3
Layer 3
The components of professional social work
GRADUATE
PRACTICE
Degree of Relationship:
Strong
Moderate
Limited

Figure 10. The Structural-Functional Model

APPENDIX I–1

UNDERGRADUATE SOCIAL WORK MAJOR FAIRLEIGH DICKINSON UNIVERSITY

I. Introduction

The program in social work offered on the Teaneck, New Jersey campus of Fairleigh Dickinson University is designed to prepare students to practice social work or fill related occupational roles in the social services (traditional and innovative) immediately upon graduation. A second goal is to offer an undergraduate program of such quality that its graduates may enter graduate schools of social work with a clear advantage. It is anticipated that the program will also contribute to the general mission of the university by enriching the totality of its offerings. Many students who simply desire a fuller understanding of society, or who wish to participate in the social services on a nonprofessional basis, can probably benefit from various aspects of the program.

It is believed that the program is a truly liberalizing one. It is not oriented to a given agency or setting; it is not designed to train technicians who operate on the basis of a manual or "cookbook"; it is not disguised in-service training. As a matter of fact, if graduates of the program fit beautifully into organizations or slip into positions with no need for agency orientation, then we would be warranted in having doubts as to whether the program were achieving its intended purposes. The primary goal is to prepare persons to perform professional functions in a humane and truly educated manner during a career that will undoubtedly require constant adaptation to changing conditions and competence requirements and a continuing interest in the learning process.

II. Structure

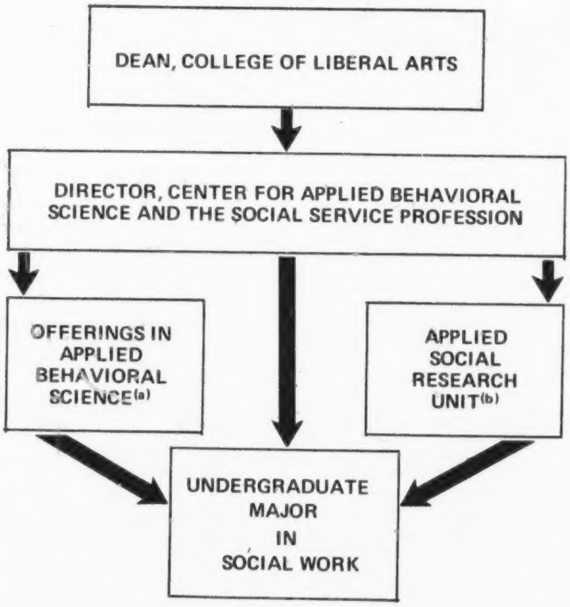
The social work major is housed in what is called The Center for Applied Behavioral Science and the Social Service Professions, an autonomous center within the university. While the center is organizationally separate from the College of Liberal Arts in terms of requirements and the like, the director of the center is directly responsible to the Dean of the College of Liberal Arts (see Figure 1).

III. The Curriculum

A. Credits

Total credits required for graduation: 128

Structure, Center for Applied Behavioral Science
and the Social Service Professions


DEAN, COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS
DIRECTOR, CENTER FOR APPLIED BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE AND THE SOCIAL SERVICE PROFESSION
OFFERINGS IN APPLIED BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE[a]
APPLIED SOCIAL RESEARCH UNIT[b]
UNDERGRADUATE MAJOR IN SOCIAL WORK

[a] The use of interdisciplinary offerings should encourage the development of new, but academically significant and legitimate courses. Two further outcomes of the interdisciplinary aspect of the Center would be encouragement of the responsible development of experimental courses within the university (e.g., "The Politics of Minority Groups," "Illegality, Violence, and Public Policy," "Alienation, Identity, and Self-actualization") and stimulation of an interdisciplinary approach to content. No major would be available within the interdisciplinary offerings.

[b] The research unit of the Center cooperates with existing departments in encouraging, stimulating, and organizing research on contemporary social problems within the framework of the university's basic purposes.

Figure 1.

B. The core curriculum

Required and elective courses in the basic disciplines to be determined by the University and the center.

C. Recommended lower division electives

Credits	*Department and Number*	
2	Social Work 1	Career Choice and the Human Service Professions.
1	Social Work 2	Laboratory Experience.
3	Social Work 3	Group Process and Interpersonal Competence.
3	Social Work 4	Social Issues and Social Policies.
6	Social Work 10-11	Social Welfare as a Social Institution.
5	Social Work 12	Man in Society.
3	Social Work 14	Social Welfare Policies and Programs: Selected Issues.
6	Social Work 16-17	Professional Intervention: Strategies and Methods.
5	Social Work 20	Components of Social Work Practice.
4	Social Work 22	Research and and Quantitative Methods.
1	Social Work 23	Research Practicum.
1-15	Social Work 25	Field Instruction.
3	Seminar 40	Variable topics.[1]
3	Social Work 50	Independent Study.[2]
3	Social Work 30	Law, the Social Service Professions, and social Change.

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[1] Example of seminar topics would be "'Client' Organizations," "Innovations in the Provision of Social Services," "Business, Labor, and Social Welfare," and "Social Services and the Ghetto."

[2] Each student would be expected to prepare a lengthy essay (or equivalent outcome) demonstrating in-depth knowledge in some area relevant to the program. The instructor responsible might be in a department other than the social work program, depending on the nature of the selected subject. The inquiry undertaken could be closely related to other coursework, such as field instruction or the research practicum. However, the inquiry would be expected to go well beyond the previous level of mastery.

APPENDIX I–2

SOCIAL WELFARE SEQUENCE, UNIVERSITY OF MAINE

The social welfare sequence at the University of Maine, Portland, seems to be in a continuous process of revision. This reflects the dynamic state of social work education as well as uncertainty about how best to prepare students for practice. Until this year the university has not thought of the sequence as a professional program of studies leading to a practice degree but has emphasized instead the liberal arts and social science dimension. Without sacrificing the latter, thought is now being given to developing a major in social welfare with clear recognition of the school's responsibility to prepare students for practice at the baccalaureate level. At present the program is administratively located in the sociology discipline within the social science division. It is expected that in the near future a separate administrative structure will be developed within a socal welfare major will be offered, drawing heavily, however, on the liberal arts and social science foundation courses.

Present offerings total 21 credit hours and consist of a 1-year course in social welfare as a social institution ("Social Problems and the Social Welfare Policy") and a 1-year sequence covering methods of social work practice and the dynamics of human service organizations, professions, and consumers. Included in a 1-year field experience component ("Community Laboratory in Social Welfare") and a final senior seminar on issues in social welfare.

Through a grant received from the Social and Rehabilitation Service under Title VII, Section 707 of the Social Security Act, an interdisciplinary seminar attached to the Community Laboratory has been developed. Students enrolled in this course include those oriented toward social work or some related human service profession as well as social science majors who wish to do a community project related to their discipline. In addition, five position papers on social science and social welfare are being commissioned. These are scheduled to be presented on campus by the authors. They will then be published in paperback for use by students in Maine and elsewhere. The three papers already in preparation are "A Sociological Perspective on Social Welfare," by Frank M. Loewenberg, "The Politics of Social Welfare," by Norton E. Long, and "Some Economic Aspects of Social Welfare as a Social Institution," by Eveline M. Burns.

The social welfare sequence as it is now offered consists of the following courses:

Credits	*Course tile*
Junior year:	
6	Social Problems and Social Welfare Policy.
Senior year:	
3	Methods of Social Work Practice.
3	Dynamics of Human Service Organizations, Professions, and Consumers.
6	Community Laboratory in Social Welfare.
3	Senior Seminar: Issues in Social Welfare.

APPENDIX I–3

UNDERGRADUATE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WELFARE, SCHOOL OF SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION, TEMPLE UNIVERSITY

The Undergraduate Department of Social Welfare of the School of Social Administration, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa., currently offers a preprofessional program in social welfare designed to enable students to enroll in graduate schools and/or to find employment in social agencies. The sophomore course—one semester with a field experience—and the junior course are open to all students in the university; the senior seminar, with a 1-year field experience, is open only to social welfare majors.

Currently (1969) there are 425 undergraduates in the regular program and 50 freshmen enrolled through a grant from the Social and Rehabilitation Service under Title VII, Section 707, of the Social Security Act, New Career Ladders in Social Welfare; 106 seniors are now in placement. Enrollment in the first course is now limited to 125 students in five sections, and when these sections are filled, admission to the program is closed. With current resources the department cannot expand indefinitely and maintain a quality program.

Presently the department is exploring the changes necessary to move toward a professional education program. If the necessary commitment in faculty and resources is made by the university, the first changes will probably be initiated in 1971–72. The academic year 1970–71 is seen as a planning year, involving students, agencies, civil service representatives, and community people in the process. It is also expected through the SRS 707 grant to initiate training programs for teachers, as well as expand the present experimental training program for supervisors. In addition there is a Child Care Training Program. Thus the department has a continuum that moves from high school graduate to master's degree, from a noncredit certificate program to training courses for credit, to a BSW and an MSW.

Under the direction of Dean Simon Slavin some new developments will be initiated in 1970–71. Upon the recommendation of the department, selected seniors will be permitted to take some graduate courses. A second-year graduate student who is interested in staff training and development will be placed in the department to work with the two training programs, those for agency supervisors and child care.

APPENDIX I—4

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK
UNDERGRADUATE SEQUENCE

The main focus of the undergraduate social service sequence is to prepare students for practice roles in the human services.

This major is also designed to fit into a continuum of graduate education in such a manner that students may reduce the length of their graduate education by as much as one year.

The curriculum consists of the following sequence of courses:

1. A liberal arts base consisting of selected courses in natural sciences, philosophy, English, foreign languages, mathematics, and the social sciences.

2. Completion of a psychology sequence consisting of an introductory course in psychology and a minimum of four additional courses related to human growth and/or personality development. A course in statistics is recommended but not required.

3. Completion of a sociology sequence consisting of an introductory course in sociology and a minimum of four additional courses related to social problems, research, soicological theory, and/or other sociology or anthropology electives.

4. Completion of one course in political science and another in economics.

5. A minimum of 18 credit hours of professional social service courses including those listed in the catalog under Social Services 101, 205, 315, 325, 335, 410. A student must complete a total of 120 credit hours in addition to physical education to receive a baccalaureate degree.

The following sequence of courses by year illustrates a typical curriculum:

First year

1st Semester:	2nd Semester:
Zoology (biology)	**Zoology (Biology)**
Public Affairs	**English**
Language (advanced)	**Philosophy**
Communications & The Service Professions	**Public Affairs**
English	**Language (advanced)**
Physical Education	**Physical Education**

Second year

1st Semester:
- Sociology
- English
- Philosophy
- Psychology 205
- Social Problems & the Social Services
- Physical Education

2nd Semester:
- Sociology
- English (Speech)
- Statistics
- Psychology of Childhood
- Social Psychology
- Physical Education

Third year

1st Semester:
- Anthropology
- Political Science
- Psychology of Adolescence
- Sociology (Delinquency, Deviancy or Ethnic and Group Relations)
- The Emergence of the Social Services

2nd Semester
- Critical Incidents in the Family (Family)
- Psychology of Adult Life
- Sociology (Social Theory)
- Philosophy (Logic)
- Social Services to Individuals

Fourth year

1st Semester:
- Economics
- Community Organization
- Introduction to Research
- Social Services to Groups
- Electives

2nd Semester:
- Philosophy (Religion, Ethics)
- Field Practicum
- Electives

The curriculum is buttressed by the following curricular and extra curricular activities:

1. A student-oriented counseling program attempts to help students to optimally utilize the university and themselves in their search for meaning in career.

2. A student organization was formed to:
   (a) initiate projects of a social service nature at local, state, and national levels.
   (b) Provide students with an opportunity for evaluating curriculum and influencing the directions for the major in the future.
   (c) promote social interaction among students and between students and faculty.
   (d) initiate other activities determined by the organization.

3. A one-semester cross-cultural learning experience in Amsterdam, Netherlands includes:
   (a) living in a Dutch home,
   (b) seminars on cross-cultural welfare systems,
   (c) field learning and observations,
   (d) Other academic courses taught by Dutch and/or American professors.

An undergraduate sequence staff member coordinates the educational activities for the social service majors in residence in Amsterdam. Plans are also in process for cross-cultural learning in America with a potential semester exchange program with a southern university.

4. Students are permitted to enroll in a double major with psychology, sociology, or with home economics.

APPENDIX A

MEMBERSHIP REQUIREMENTS OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL WORKERS*

MEMBERSHIP OPEN DOORS TO BA'S, THREE CATEGORIES OF REGULAR MEMBERSHIP

By a vote of 64 percent "yes" and 36 percent "no" to broaden membership eligibility, NASW members clearly stated their conviction that NASW must assume responsibility for the whole range of practice in social work. This action, which will bring BA's into the professional association for the first time, opens regular membership to three new categories and establishes an associate classification.

NASW will now have the opportunity to professionalize the field and, together with the development of qualitative standards for ACSW, begin to develop a professionalization ladder that will cover most ranges of personnel.

The three new groups eligible for regular membership are these:

1. Persons holding a bachelor's degree with an undergraduate sequence in social work that meets criteria established by the Council on Social Work Education.
2. Students in an accredited graduate school of social work.
3. Persons holding doctoral degrees in related fields and affiliated with graduate social work programs or social agencies.

The associate category is open to persons holding a Bachelor's Degree in other fields and "currently employed in a social work capacity."

An advancement ladder

These actions bring together in a unified body most of those involved in the practice of social work. Further, opportunity to advance within the profession as a whole is built into the changes. First, associate members may advance to regular membership after completing 2 years of social work employment, 2 years in the associate category, and specified undergraduate or graduate academic requirements. Second, the adoption of qualitative standards of practice scheduled for January 1971 for admission to ACSW, in addition to the current MSW requirement, will further insure an advancement procedure.

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[*] Exerpt from NASW NEWS (National Association of Social Workers, Vol. 15, No. 2, January 1970.

All rights and privileges of regular membership are granted to associate members except holding national or chapter elective office or voting in national elections or referenda. However, chapters retain autonomy in extending voting privileges to associate members.

Machinery to put the new entrance requirements into effect is being designed by the Department of Professional Standards. In making its decisions, the department will rely heavily on CSWE's criteria for undergraduate programs in social welfare. CSWE is now engaged in upgrading these standards.

APPENDIX B

MEMBERSHIP REQUIREMENTS OF THE COUNCIL ON SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

NEW REQUIREMENTS FOR CONSTITUENT MEMBERSHIP—COUNCIL ON SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

A university or college offering an undergraduate program in social welfare constituent with the values of the social work profession is eligible for constituent membership in the Council on Social Work Education when it meets the criteria listed below:

1. It is accredited for 4 or more years of college work by its regional accrediting association.
2. It identifies and describes the undergraduate program in social welfare in its catalog.
3. It requires a broad liberal base for the social welfare program with content in the areas specified in the CSWE undergraduate guide (Undergraduate Programs in Social Welfare: A Guide to Objectives, Content, Field Experience and Organization), pages 7–10.
4. It submits a written statement of the educational objectives of the program.
5. It indicates on the transcript or diploma or otherwise certifies that the student has completed a program in social welfare.
6. It certifies only students who have completed a coherent program of courses in the foundation disciplines and in social welfare designed to meet the stated educational objectives and covering the content areas suggested in the guide.
7. It certifies only students who have completed appropriate educationally directed field experience with direct engagement in service activities, which is an integral part of the program.
8. It assigns to a full-time faculty member major responsibilities for the administration of the undergraduate program in social welfare.
9. It includes a social worker with a graduate degree from an accredited school of social work in the full-time faculty of the undergraduate program in social welfare.
10. It assigns a social worker with a graduate degree from an accredited school of social work to teach the content on social work practice.

The Membership Committee may require a site visit in the process of determining eligibility for constituent membership. To continue constituent membership in CSWE, colleges and universities will be required to reaffirm annually that there undergraduate programs in social welfare contain to meet all the requirements.

Undergraduate constituent membership dues, as of July, 1971, will be $200 per year.

These above criteria are deemed necessary for programs whose objective is to educate students at the undergraduate level for practice positions in social welfare. Programs which meet these criteria may also have other objectives, such as preparation for graduate social work education, preparation for employment or further education in the human services generally, or contribution toward broad liberal arts and citizenship education. In some cases, to meet these other objectives, programs may require students to take only part of this total curriculum in combination with other content appropriate to the different goals.

There is no question that programs which meet these other objectives only are offering valid and important education. However, it is not an appropriate function of CSWE to prescribe standards for such programs. They may continue an affiliation with CSWE as associate members.

Benefits and Limitations of Associate Membership

Associate membership is open to colleges and universities with undergraduate programs in social welfare which do not desire or are not able to meet the requirements for constituent membership. Undergraduate programs which hold associate membership, unlike those with constituent membership, will not be included in the directory of member undergraduate programs in social welfare, published annually by CSWE, nor will they have voting rights in the CSWE House of Delegates or be able to participate in the election of CSWE officers and Board of Directors. Associate members may not refer to this membership in CSWE in their catalogues and other printed materials in order to avoid confusion with constituent members whose programs have met specified requirements. Associate members, however, do receive publications and consultation service from CSWE. Dues for associate membership are $75 per year.

Timetable for Applications and Publication of Directory

On November 1 ,1970, the 1970–71 CSWE directory of undergraduate constituent members will be issued, listing all colleges and universities with undergraduate programs in social welfare which have qualified under CSWE's 1967 criteria.

Starting in Fall of 1970, CSWE will begin accepting applications for membership under the new 1970 criteria. All those accepted for undergraduate constituent membership by June 30, 1971, will be listed in a new directory to be issued as of July 1, 1971, and annually thereafter.

APPENDIX C

SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION AT THE CROSSROADS

James R. Dumpson

ISSUES IN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

Social work education at all levels is confronted in 1970 by a number of issues, some of which are specific to it and by others which are generic to all contemporary social institutions. Preliminary consideration of these more generic problems can provide a context for the specific issues.

GENERIC ISSUES

Kami has vividly pointed out what can be called the knowledge explosion.[1] According to Kami, if the amount of man's knowledge were measurable, it would be seen that it took from the birth of Christ to the 18th century for this body of knowledge to double. It is now doubling every 4 years. This may initially be viewed as a great boon to education; we are however, being overwhelmed by the amount of new information being produced. Man, who normally relies on the printed or spoken word for most of his information is no longer able to keep abreast of the knowledge available. We are confronted with a crisis in information processing. This issue before us is how to process and make available, in a manageable form, the mass of ever expanding information that is so vital if any profession is to remain relevant in the seventies.

Kahn points out that by the year 2000 (only 30 years away) reeducation will be necessary every 4 years.[2] He suggests that this reeducation can no longer be accomplished by the traditional educational methods and forms; rather, he sees the computer as the required medium of instruction. Darling at the recent Public Affairs Conference of the National Industrial Conference Board, noted that a panel of National Industrial Conference Board experts has been brought together to consider projections for the next 50 years.[3] It was the expressed belief of some panel members that those who are able to resolve this issue of information processing will be the power elite of the future.

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[1] Michael J. Kami, "Planning for Change with New Approaches," *Social Casework*, Vol. #4 (April 1970) pp. 209–210.

[2] Herman Kahn, testimony before a congressional subcommittee in 1969.

[3] Charles Darling, National Industrial Conference Board, Public Affairs Conference, New York, N.Y. 1970.

These issues are especially significant for social work educators, since they demand a radical change in educational structures and processes. No answer is proposed here, although it does seem that we must begin to question our reliance on what Marshall McLuhan might refer to as the mechanistic approach to education and rely to a greater extent on more creative educational processes.

A second matter that demands consideration by educators and social work educators in particular is the increase in complex societal events and consequent problems. The explosive expansion of the population, the growth and character of urban centers, the rapid advances in technology have served to bring mankind into a new age—an age of massive interdependence, which has led in turn to an increasing number of social problems.

Massive social problems are a relatively new phenomenon and consequently one about which little is known. These problems are highly abstract and therefore most difficult to grasp. Yet, they demand resolution. We are confronted with events whose nature we not only fail to understand, but which as a result, we find difficult to affect. We are challenged to develop an understanding of the societal events surrounding us and, subsequently, a body of knowledge and social welfare personnel with varying levels of skill and understanding to guide us toward effective societal intervention.

These two issues generic to all modern social institutions—the knowledge explosion and massive social problems—must not escape the serious concern of those who are committed to preparing the manpower whose task it is to effect individual and social change in the attempt to realize a meaningful life for all.

AREAS OF CONCERN

The remainder of this paper will cover three areas of concern to everyone in social work education whether at the graduate, baccalaureate, or community college level. The writer will speculate briefly on the future of graduate social work education in the light of recent developments both within the social work field and the communities it serves, comment on the need for new structural arrangements among the different educational levels, and discuss the implications of all this for manpower development and utilization.

Recent Developments

Two significant developments in the social work field provide the content for the writer's present thinking on these issues. First, the National Association of Social Workers, the single professional membership association in social work, has made available additional entry points for membership in the profession by its decision to accept, as regular members, persons with a baccalaureate degree from programs that meet specified criteria to be defined by the Council on Social Work Education. NASW has also provided for advancement of associate members to regular membership if such persons meet specific educational requirements after 2 years of associate membership. This action on the part of

NASW is truly revolutionary, since the professional association has traditionally held to but one entry point into the profession, the Masters of Social Work. While such action is long overdue in terms of the realities of the manpower situation and the untapped resources for improving it both numerically and qualitatively, it places tremendous responsibility on educators at all levels and provides an additional challenge for more creative processes in education.

The second and more recent development was the adoption, of criteria for undergraduate constituent membership by the Board of Directors of CSWE. These criteria, in addition to requiring the offering of an undergraduate program in social work "consistent with the values of the social work profession," are enumerated in appendix B.

As one reads these criteria an important fact becomes crystal clear: that the entire statement is rooted in the conviction that undergraduate programs in social work, while having their base in the liberal arts tradition and while serving as preparation for graduate social work education, are still *practice* focused. As Herbert Bisno stated in the preliminary report of Task Force II: "The undergraduate social work program is the first level of professional education from baccalaureate programs that meet the CSWE criteria will indeed be certified as social work practitioners. National Association of Social Workers and the Council on Social Work Education have both given legitimacy to the professional practice status of the undergraduate programs that meet CSWE criteria and have confirmed the professional credentials for social work practice of graduates of such programs. The CSWE action forges together two important links in the social work educational continuum and, by inference at least, mandates the fullest collaboration between educators in the graduate and undergraduate programs. Only in this way will the essential level of integration be achieved. The action raises, of course, some new problems and challenges: those identified earlier as the future of graduate social work education, the need for structural arrangements among the component levels of the educational continuum, and the implications for manpower development and utilization.

New Structural Arrangements

No longer is the crucial issue whether undergraduate training for social work practice is primarily preparation for entrance into graduate schools. No longer is the issue whether it is primarily liberal arts education. Laughton crisply stated a position that now has the imprimatur of the accrediting and membership associations.

> The basic issue which requires rational analysis is what, if any, portion of professional education, within the liberal arts framework, is appropriate and feasible at the undergraduate level. Education which prepares for practice immediately following four years of college study in a liberal arts setting is neither technical nor preprofessional study. It has more of the characteristics of professional education and should be recognized as such.

The first specific issue in social work education, related to the generic issues raised earlier in this paper and evolving not only out of the policy decisions of NASW and CSWE but also out of the educational validity of accredited undergraduate programs, is redefinition of the goal of graduate social work education. Graduate social work education must define as its goal the preparation for clinical practice of social welfare managers, policy formualtors and planners, consultants, trainers of social welfare paraprofessionals, and social researchers. The front-line delivery of social welfare services need no longer to be the function of those persons who have earned the Masters of Social Work. Preparation for this function must now be the goal of strengthened and enriched undergraduate programs.

It does seem clear that recent developments in undergraduate programs cannot but result in a reformulation of the curricula of graduate schools with particular reference to the level of knowledge and skills taught. As undergraduate programs choose to enrich their social work content, the question necessarily arises as to the length of time required to earn the Masters of Social Work. Questions will also arise as to whether there are other options available to the graduate schools that warrant development and research. CSWE established in 1970 a Special Committee to Study the Length of Professional Social Work Education. Undoubtedly a number of factors led to the questions implicit in the decision to establish such a committee. The development of quality undergraduate programs and the concept of an educational continuum cannot be overlooked and cannot help but be an important consideration as the committee pursues its charge. Early in its work the committee identified a variety of models of education for social work practice that take into account the undergraduate-graduate linkage.

At least two linkage models appear feasible. Their feasibility, however, rests on the availability of a quality undergraduate sequence in social work offered as the fourth year of the baccalaureate program. The graduate school curriculum might then seek to raise the level of knowledge, skill, and attitudes taught in the 2-year master's program and seek to produce clinicians, administrators, policy specialists, and planners well beyond the beginning practitioner level. As another alternative, the graduate school might develop a coherent 1-year master's degree program that meets the Council on Social Work Education criteria for membership and thus assure the level of practice competence of its graduates that is the goal of current Masters of Social Work programs. These two options for linkage recognize that some of the material traditionally taught in the Master's program is being taught or could well be taught at the baccalaureate level.

Each of these two models suggests an internal operational linkage between faculty members teaching on the graduate and undergraduate levels. They call for the closest collaboration between faculties so that selectivity and content of course offerings might represent an integrated, sequential educational experience as students move from one level to the other. At the same time undergraduate programs must be developed that meet acceptable beginning social work practice criteria for those students for whom these programs are likely to be terminal. Also suggested is a collaborative relation that includes transferability of faculty between the classroom and fieldwork courses. All of this recommends either location of the two programs in the same university system or a consortium in which one or more undergraduate programs are academically related to one graduate school of social work. The operational linkage further suggests joint research and demonstration efforts on curriculum content, course organization, and teaching techniques. The research and demonstration might examine whether there are educational advantages in having graduate and undergraduate students from the two levels. It suggest a strengthening of the relationship between the undergraduate programs and CSWE with the latter being given the same mandate for accreditation of undergraduate programs as it has with respect to the graduate schools.

As must be pointed out in any consideration of such a model for linkage, the question of introducing "vocationalism" into undergraduate education will surely arise. The changes required in our conceptual references for all levels of education must be reviewed in the light of new needs, new knowledge, and new ways of joining this knowledge and our educational resources to meet those needs. Traditional educational philosophy may not be functional for the future. What is called for is educational leadership in social welfare and controlled demonstration to determine whether traditional formulations about liberal arts education as well as professional social work education continue to be valid and indeed, whether the introduction of professional social work education at the undergraduate level does or even need violate liberal arts objectives.

Implications

As the social welfare manpower crisis began to be identified in the early 1960's undergraduate social welfare education came to be viewed as a short cut to relieving the pressure of the manpower shortage. Witte points out that undergraduate education for social welfare "evolved primarily in response to very utilitarian needs . . ." He states:

> Certainly one cited purpose is to prepare people for employment in welfare positions. A corollary purpose, often assumed but sometimes not voiced, is to recruit students in the field early, which helps students test their career interests and foster identification with the profession.

But it is a fairly recent development that undergraduate education has been seen as preparation for a beginning level of social work practice, however we finally come to define the tasks that workers with this preparation can best carry out. Even when there has been genuine acceptance of this as one of the goals of undergraduate programs, no real progress has been made in sorting out the tasks in social welfare according to the differential levels of knowledge and skills required to perform them.

Kendall, pointed out as long ago as 1966 that the center of gravity for CSWE reaches beyond the confines of graduate education to pull in appropriate activities and concerns of the undergraduate level of education, goes on to urge social work education to decide what can be provided at the undergraduate end to prepare for jobs not requiring the MSW degree. But rationalizing the tasks in the field of social welfare and identifying the differential levels of knowledge and skills required must still be characterized as a priority assignment for the profession.

CONCLUSION

The question "professional education for what?" needs to be answered fully if we are to realize maximum benefit from joining undergraduate and graduate education in a continuum. The end goal of social work education is effective functioning in the service delivery system whether as a direct service practitioner, manager, supervisor, administrator, social policy developer, or social planner. The pattern of service delivery is changing, whether we look at education or health or welfare. There is a desperate need for research efforts to delineate the character of manpower needs in social welfare, to define the kinds of jobs that must be done, the ways in which they are likely to be done in the future, and the differential levels of knowledge and skills required to do them. Once we get on with this assignment, freed from past perceptions, we well may find that there is no manpower crisis. We may find that we are underutilizing the manpower reservoir we have and the educational resources for preparing that manpower. And we may have found new meaningful ways to provide credentials that facilitate educational as well as vocational mobility for a large number of persons, largely from economically and educationally disadvantaged backgrounds.

The social work profession—educators and practitioners both—faces new and exciting challenges in the seventies. It faces a knowledge explosion that if expertly utilized can enrich its knowledge base and revolutionize its role as an instrument for healing and change.

An educational continuum can effectively provide the quality of personnel required to man the service delivery system that is evolving for the decades ahead and that is required to assure the health and well-being of all people. It can provide personnel better prepared to help deal with the find solutions to the problems that erode human energies and hope.

To do this requires that we seize the potential for creative, innovative educational programs in social welfare, that we utilize all of our settings for research and development of the new roles each graduate of the continuum can perform best. In this way we are sure to develop new approaches not only to meeting the manpower needs in the social welfare field, but we will have enlarged the opportunity of people to make new uses of themselves in helping others.

APPENDIX D

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